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AUTHOR NOTATION

IN THE

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

By

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AUTHOR NOTATION

IN THE

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At the outset, it is assumed that all librarians are familiar with the Dewey Decimal Classification, the Cutter Expansive Classification, and with various other library classifications, and with the several lists for Author notation, *i. e.* the Cutter two-figure tables, the Cutter three-figure tables, and the Cutter-Sanborn three-figure tables.

As two systems of notation are used at one and the same time in combination—a Classification and an Author notation—the difference between them must be kept clearly in mind. It is true that in the Library of Congress the two are closely joined in places, yet for all practical purposes there is a distinct dividing line.

The Classification number is fixed, determined by a rigid schedule. The Author number is usually on a sliding scale. The Author numbers are decimals (except the date numbering, which will be considered later); the Classification numbers, for the most part whole numbers. In certain sections of the classification, decimal subdivisions are used under a general division, but these are also determined by schedule and may not be altered. For example, E462=Societies of Veterans of the Civil War. The individual societies would be represented by decimals, *e. g.*

E462.1 Grand army of the republic.

E462.2 Military order of the loyal legion.

Every volume having for its content the subject of the Military Order of the Loyal Legion bears the number E462.2 without modification. If Thomas Brown should write a history of the order, the volume would bear an additional number—a decimal—besides E462.2. The designation representing Brown could be anywhere from .B6 to .B9, according to the exigencies of the case, as, How many Browns have written upon this subject? How many editions is the Library likely to own? How many translations? How many other men whose names begin with B are represented in the class? The Classification number is the string which binds the beads together; the Author number determines the order of the beads on the string.

Many of the Library of Congress Classification schedules having been indexed and printed are available for use in other libraries. Other schedules, including those in progress, exist in typewritten form. The schedule in hand, the Classification number can be found and applied, and needs no further consideration in this connection.

Before proceeding to the application of the Author numbers, it might be well to understand the scope of the term and the method of expressing the symbols. The term Author or book number is used broadly and includes the marks designating the titles of serial publications, anonymous works, individual works distinguished by date, etc. The letters should be the capitals used in printing and in size one-third higher than the figure following. The decimal point is indicated, not left to the imagination. In the Author number it is placed before the letter, .L8 not between letter and figure, L.8. In the former position it serves to differentiate the class from the author, and the impression is more agreeable to the eye. Should the Book

number be other than a decimal, a space is left between it and the preceding notation, as D422 1660. For convenience, the notation is printed on the lower margin of the catalogue card, in a horizontal line: D353.3.S5. On books (bookplates, labels, etc.), shelflist, and catalogue cards it is written in a column. The Author number is placed below the Classification number, thus:

D353

.3

.S5

Should the decimal point in D353.3 be accidentally omitted when the number is written horizontally, instead of three hundred and fifty-three and three-tenths, the number would read three thousand five hundred and thirty-three, and the volume be thrown far out of place. The effect of the omission in the other case would be practically nil.

Author or Book notation is naturally divided into two arrangements, the alphabetical and the chronological. Other arrangements are negligible.

For a statement of the theory and practice of assigning book numbers, the novice is referred to "Simplified Library School Rules," by Melvil Dewey, p. 53-60 (Library Bureau, \$1.25), and "Library Notes," v. 3, no. 11, p. 419-450 (New York Library School).

ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT

In the alphabetical arrangement of the Library of Congress the Cutter three-figure table is used as a basis in assigning numbers for books in Fiction; the Cutter-Sanborn three-figure table for all other classes. Neither is strictly ad-

hered to, and there are numerous exceptions. A few general rules are appended.

I. MODIFICATIONS ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF WORKS

Where the subject is likely to have only a limited number of books, the Author designation is reduced to a minimum, *e. g.* GT₂₁₃₀=History of footwear. There are but four volumes in the class, numbered as follows:

- GT₂₁₃₀.B3 Baudouin, Benoit. ...De calceo antiquo. 1667.
- GT₂₁₃₀.D8 Dutton, William Henry. The boots and shoes of our ancestors. 1898.
- GT₂₁₃₀.G7 Greig, T. Watson. Ladies' old-fashioned shoes. 1885.
- GT₂₁₃₀.T7 Towle, Herbert Chester. The shoe in romance and history. 1915.

Should another Dutton produce a book on the history of footwear, it would take its place in alphabetical order of the Christian name of the author, .D7 for James Dutton, .D9 for William Thomas Dutton.

In some classes, such as PZ₃ (Fiction), QA₁₀₃ (Arithmetical text-books), TX₇₁₅ (American cook-books), the entries are numerous, and the numbers may run to four and five figures.

In all simple author lists it is perfectly feasible to use one, two, three or more figures in the same class. The filing of the books is not disturbed, *e. g.* .

- TX₇₁₅.D28 Davis, Eldene. A table for two. 1913
- TX₇₁₅.D285 Dearth, Nellie D., *comp.* Food for thought. [1911]
- TX₇₁₅.D3 Deaver, Marguerite. The Christ hospital cook book. 1910.

AUTHOR NOTATION

II. WORKS BY THE SAME AUTHOR

Two or more works by the same author in the same class are differentiated by successive Cutter numbers, *e. g.*

HN64.N38 Nearing, Scott. Poverty and riches. [°1916]

HN64.N4 Nearing, Sco.t. Social adjustment. 1911.

HN64.N44 Nearing, Scott. Social sanity, 1911.

(Note that entries are in alphabetical order of title)

In fiction the differentiation is effected by incorporating the initial letter (or letters) of titles, *e. g.*

PZ3.S848Dy Stevenson, R. L. The dynamiter. 1885.

PZ3.S848K Stevenson, R. L. Kidnapped. 1912.

There are certain exceptions which are determined by the individual scheme. If, for instance, the author is included in the Classification number, the Book numbers indicate the titles of his works, *e. g.*

QH365=Works on evolution by Darwin.

QH 365 D 1871 Darwin, Charles. The descent of man. 1871.

QH 365 D 1909 Darwin, Charles. The descent of man. 1909.

QH 365 O 1881 Darwin, Charles. On the origin of species.
1881.

PR3487=Separate works by Goldsmith.

PR 3487.G6 Goldsmith, Oliver. The good-natured man.
1768?

PR 3487.H4 Goldsmith, Oliver. The hermit. 1886.

PR 4453.C4=Chesterton.

PR 4453.C4D4 Chesterton, G. K. The defendant. 1902.

PR 4453.C4M3 Chesterton, G. K. Magic. 1913.

(Note two Cutter numbers joined; Author number and number for title)

III. EDITIONS

Editions are differentiated in several ways—

a) When the number of editions is likely to be limited, successive editions are differentiated by successive Cutter numbers, *e. g.*

NC710.H26 Hamerton, P. G. The graphic arts. 1883.

NC710.H27 Hamerton, P. G. The graphic arts. 1902.

b) When editions are likely to be numerous, by date of publication, *e. g.*

QM23.G7 1866 Gray, Henry. Anatomy. 1866.

QM23.G7 1883 Gray, Henry. Anatomy. 1883.

QM23.G7 1913 Gray, Henry. Anatomy. Philadelphia, 1913.

QM23.G7 1913a Gray, Henry. Anatomy. London, 1913.

(Note the lower-case "a" differentiating the two editions of 1913)

c) In fiction, by the addition of an integral number, *e. g.*

PZ3.C857Lo Crawford, F. M. Love in idleness. 1909.

PZ3.C857Lo2 Crawford, F. M. Love in idleness. 1910.

d) In certain cases where the title of the work is included in the classification number, by editor or translator, *e. g.*

PR2753.B8 Shakespeare, William. ... Complete works ... ed. by W. C. Bryant. 1890.

PR2753.C6 Shakespeare, William. ... The works ... ed. by W. G. Clark. 1866.

PR2753.F8 Shakespeare, William. The old spelling Shakespeare ... ed. by F. G. Furnival. 1907—

IV. TRANSLATIONS

Translations are differentiated in several ways, although the same order is always maintained, *i. e.* after the original

text the translations follow in alphabetical order of language.

a) Where the sequence of authors and titles is alphabetical, the order is secured by the assignment of successive Cutter numbers, *e*, *g*.

BJ1496.W18	Wagner, Charles.	La vie simple.	1895.
BJ1496.W2	Wagner, Charles.	The simple life.	1902.
BJ1496.W3	Wagner, Charles.	La vida sencilla.	1907.
BF1078.F7	Freud, Sigmund.	Die traumdeutung.	1909.
BF1078.F72 1913	Freud, Sigmund.	The interpretation of dreams.	1913.
BF1078.F72 1915	Freud, Sigmund.	The interpretation of dreams.	1915.

(This rule does not conflict with IIIa. When translations and editions occur in the same list, the latter are differentiated by the dates of publication, as in example under Freud.)

b) In classes where the arrangement is chronological, a lower-case letter may be added to the date, *e*, *g*.

JN8763 1874	Switzerland.	<i>Bundesverfassung.</i>	<i>Bundesverfassung der Schweizerischen eidgenossenschaft.</i>	(Vom 29. mai 1874).	[1874]
JN8763 1784f	Switzerland.	<i>Bundesverfassung.</i>	<i>Constitution fédérale de la Confédération suisse du</i>	29 mai 1874.	[1874]

c) In other classes, as Literature, the distinction is in part expressed by the Classification number, in part by a specially provided schedule, *e*, *g*.

PR3561	=Translations of Paradise lost.
PR3561.F5C5	Milton, John. <i>Le Paradis perdu.</i> Trad. de Chateaubriand. 1855.
PR3561.G5B6	Milton, John. ...Verlohrnes Paradies ... übers. von J. J. Bodmer. 1780.

PR3561.I5M4 Milton, John. Il Paradiso perduto ... trad. da
F. Mariottini. 1796.

(Note that .F5=French, .G5=German, etc.)

or

PT8110=Billedbog uden billeder, of Hans Christian Andersen.

PT8110.B5G3 Anderson, Hans Christian. ... Bilderbuch ohne
bilder ... with vocabulary by W. Bernhardt.
1891.

PT8110.B5G7 Anderson, Hans Christian. ... Bilderbuch ohne
bilder ... with English notes ... by L. Simonson.
[1887]

(Note that the number for edition is fused with the language number: .G3=German ed. by Bernhardt, .G7=German ed. by Simonson)

V. DOUBLE NUMBERS

In one of the foregoing examples a double Cutter number may be observed (.C4D4) Double numbering has been found effective and practical and has been used extensively. Both figures are decimals and both can be expanded wherever necessary. The decimal point is placed before the first letter but omitted before the second, giving the notation a compact appearance. The first letter and figure, generally, though not always, indicate the subject; the second letter and figure, the author. Where the number of subjects can be definitely or approximately ascertained, they have been worked out and embodied in the Classification schedules, *e. g.* QD341=Special groups of aromatic compounds, HF5716=Particular commercial commodities, DA690=Cities and towns of England.

In small libraries it may be practical to dispense with subdivisions and enter the books in one alphabet under the authors, but such an arrangement in a large collection would

defeat the aim of the classification. The five hundred and eighteen cities and towns listed under DA690 were all taken from actual shelflist entries. This means that the Library of Congress has at least one volume of history or description on each of the five hundred and eighteen towns. As a matter of fact, there are often more. Bristol alone has twenty-two individual entries.

In some cases the "double-number" is used on the shelflist without being incorporated in the Classification schedule. CT = General biography, *i. e.* biography that cannot be classified by subject elsewhere. Here are collected hundreds of lives of more or less important people, and hundreds more will doubtless be intercalated. A ready-to-be-used scheme is not practicable. The numbers are distributed to suit the collection at hand and may be redistributed as necessity requires.

Double numbering also serves another purpose. In a general class, its use allows a criticism of a particular work to follow the work itself, *e. g.*

- BX4819 = Early controversial works against Protestantism.
 BX4819.B5 Bossuet, J. B. *Histoire des variations des églises protestantes.* 1770.
 BX4819.B6 Bossuet, J. B. *The history of the variations of the Protestant churches.* 1836.
 BX4819.B7R4 Rébelliau, Alfred. *Bossuet ... étude sur l' "Histoire des variations."* 1909.

VI. SEVERAL WORKS BEGINNING WITH THE SAME WORD

It sometimes follows from the nature of the subject that many entries in a given subdivision will begin with the same word. In such cases the numbers are shifted accordingly. N1 = American and English art periodicals. The Library of Congress contains nineteen art serials, with titles running the gamut from "Art" to "Art student," besides "The

Artist," "The Artists' repository," "Arts and decoration," and "Arts for America." Instead of grafting them all on .A8, carrying the decimals to three figures, .A3-.A8 is used for entries beginning with *Art*, leaving .A1-.A2 and .A9 to accommodate the *five* other entries which precede and follow.

VII. DECIMALS 1 AND 9

In assigning book numbers care should be taken in the use of .1 and .9. They should be used with reserve. In the early stages of the work this fact was not appreciated. Under DA890, Cities and towns of Scotland, .S1 was assigned to *St. Andrews*. Should there be a monograph on the picturesque village of *St. Abb's*, it would be necessary to shift four entries from .S1 to .S2 (in disagreement with the printed schedule) or use an awkward symbol, as .S05.

If a book in the shelflist bears the number .C6, the one immediately following should not be .C61; or if the first be .C62, the next should not be .C621, unless it is intended to block the way—to keep any entry from coming between the two. There are cases when it becomes imperative to place books next to each other. An example of this may be found in American literature of the nineteenth century. For the works of Oliver Wendell Holmes the Library of Congress has a special scheme, the last number of which is PS1998. The number PS1999 is assigned to writers between Holmes and Richard Hovey. Among them is Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, whose number is PS1999.H1. Obviously, nothing can come between PS1998 and PS1999.H1, the son's name immediately following the father's.

The use of .9 is not so dangerous as the use of .1. It can be built out indefinitely. Still, in order to prevent the

numbers from growing unwieldy it is often desirable to push them back from the edge. ND497 = Painters of Great Britain without distinction of period. According to the Cutter-Sanborn table, Burne-Jones would be given .B9. It is better to assign .B8, and leave some room for future painters whose names follow alphabetically. Who's Who gives no less than sixty names alphabetically following Burne-Jones.

VARIATIONS IN THE ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT

I. WORKS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE CLASS

Under many subjects it is advisable to place certain forms of material at the beginning of the class, and the notation is manipulated to this end. This is perfectly feasible, as the proportion of surnames beginning with A is small. .A1 to .A6 or .A1 to .A8 may always be reserved when needed, and authors' surnames beginning with that letter find room under .A7 to .A9 or .A9 alone if .A1-.A8 has been set aside for other purposes. As examples of this usage the following cases are selected:

a) In biography. A man's autobiography precedes his life, written by another person, *e. g.*

B1606.A2 Mill, John Stuart. ... Autobiography. 1909.

B1606.C8 Courtney, W. L. Life of John Stuart Mill. 1889.

b) In geographical divisions or subdivisions where the country, state, or city is the author, *e. g.*

QE193=Geology of Quebec.

QE193.A6 Quebec (Province) Dept. of lands, etc. Rapport sur la géologie ... de Chibougamau. 1912.

QE193.A7 Adams, F. D. Report on the geology of the Laurentian area. 1896.

c) In form classes, galleries, museums, etc., where the institution itself issues publications, *e. g.*

N1070=National gallery o London.

N1070.A2 London. National gallery ... Report.

N1070.A6 1911 London. National gallery ... Catalogue.
British school. 1911.

N1070.A7 1906 London. National gallery. An abridged catalogue. Foreign schools. 1906.

N1070.A9 Addison, Julia de Wolf. The art of the National gallery. 1906.

(A number of entries between .A2 and .A6 are omitted here)

II. WORKS AT THE END OF THE CLASS

Just as important material (usually of a documentary character) has been placed at the beginning of the alphabet, so conversely, unimportant matter may be consigned to the end, by the use of .Z7 to .Z9. In class Z (Bibliography) .Z9 is frequently assigned to sale catalogues of collections of books on a certain subject.

III. NUMBERING UNDER THE SECOND LETTER

In classification of twentieth-century literature where the number of entries is likely to be large, a system has been devised which materially reduces the length of the Author notation. It must remain for the future to determine the relative importance of the present literary endeavor. For the time being, all twentieth-century literary writers are filed alphabetically in their respective classes. But in all the larger literatures, instead of allowing one Classification num-

ber to represent the entire alphabet, each letter has a Classification number to itself. Thus PS3501 = American authors whose surnames begin with A. PS3503 = American authors whose surnames begin with B. The author symbol then represents—not the first letter of the Author's name, but the *second* letter. Thus PS3537 = American twentieth century authors whose surnames begin with S, and,

.A14=Saben, Mowry.

.A15=Sabin, Will.

.A92=Sauter, Edwin.

.C16=Scarborough, Dorothy.

.E26=Seeger, Alan.

The letter S combines with fifteen other letters of the alphabet, and the author numbers can thus be broken up into fifteen separate groups. The Library of Congress already has three hundred entries under PS3537, and it is obvious that when listed in the fifteen groups the numbers will be smaller than they would be if the entries were combined into one list.

CHRONOLOGICAL ARRANGEMENT

So far we have dealt mainly with the alphabetical arrangement and its exceptions. The chronological arrangement is often a more appropriate sequence, and its advantage was early recognized by librarians. Several systems were devised, notably the Biscoe date-letters. (For an explanation of the Biscoe date-letters, see Cutter's *Expansive Classification*, Pt. 1, p. 130-131, or Dewey's *Decimal Classification* 1915, p. 854-855) Examples of chronological arrangement in the Library of Congress are:

I. IN HISTORY

For pamphlet literature during certain reigns—

- DA 398 1629 .B2 Bacon, Francis. Considerations touching a warre with Spaine. 1629.
 DA 398 1630 .W2 Wadsworth, James. The English Spanish pilgrime. 1630.

II. IN SCIENCE

For individual comets appearing within a given period—

- QB 726 58.B7 Bond, G. P. On the outline of the head of the comet of Donati, 1858. 1862.
 QB 726 61.B7 Bond, G. P. Account of the comet II, 1861. 1861.
 QB 726 61.K8 Kreutz, Heinrich. Untersuchungen über die bahn des grossen kometen von 1861. 1880.
 (Note that the century is included in Classification number, *e. g.* QB726=Comets appearing between 1800-1899)

III. IN POLITICAL SCIENCE

For certain congressional documents, as hearings on a specific subject—

- JK 1888 1892 U. S. Congress. House. Committee on the judiciary. Hearing of the Woman suffrage association ... January 18, 1892. 1892.
 JK 1888 1896 U. S. Congress. House. Committee on the judiciary. Hearing of the National woman suffrage association ... January 28, 1896. 1896.
 JK 1888 1896a U. S. Congress. Senate. Select committee on woman suffrage. ... Report of hearing ... on woman suffrage. January 28, 1896. 1896.
 JK 1888 1912 U. S. Congress. House. Committee on the judiciary. Woman suffrage. ... Hearings ... February 14, 1912. 1912.

IV. IN LITERATURE

a) To distinguish editions when the title is included in the classification:

PR 5814=Collected poems of Oscar Wilde.

PR 5814 1903 Wilde, Oscar. Poems. 1903.

PR 5814 1908 Wilde, Oscar. The poetical works. 1908.

PR 5814 1910 Wilde, Oscar. Poems. 1910.

b) When editions of an author's works are voluminous, and their publication extends over a number of years, editions without editor are numbered by a scheme of date-letters somewhat similar to the Biscoe date-letters. (See Literature schedule, Table 1) *e. g.*

PQ 2279 E4¹ Hugo, Victor Marie. Œuvres. 1841-44.

PQ 2279 E8⁵ Hugo, Victor Marie. Œuvres. 1885-95.

PQ 2279 Fo⁴ Hugo, Victor Marie. Œuvres complètes. 1904-

V. IN VARIOUS OTHER PLACES

In all places, whether the complete date or a system of date-lettering (as in J82, Presidents' messages) is used, the facts are clearly set forth in the Classification schedules.

CONCLUSION

The Author notation of the Library of Congress has been a gradual development. There were a few tables to serve as general guides, but almost no precedents for special contingencies. It has been necessary to arrange and rearrange.

Hundreds of tables to fit individual cases have been worked out. Some of these may be called *floating*—they can be attached wherever necessary. Such are the "Table of cities of the United States," "Table of states," "Table of countries in one alphabet." These are all printed in the

Classification schedule for Class H and several of them in various other schedules.

There are other tables peculiarly adapted to certain cases, but also applicable elsewhere. Such are the lists of the provinces of France (DC 611), the cities of Germany (DD 901), and of special lines of business (HF 5686)

Other tables are not so flexible and fit only the subject to which they are affixed.

No table should be slavishly followed, but should be amplified or modified as exigencies arise. As books are not screws, turned out by machinery, according to a mathematical formula, but present infinite variety as to form and content, an orderly arrangement requires the constant exercise of ingenuity and common sense. An example illustrating this point may be taken from the Literature schedule (PN-PR-PS-PZ) In Table VIII the literary forms of an author's works are placed in the following order: 1. Novels, 2. Essays, 3. Poems, 4. Plays. If an author is pre-eminently a novelist, his novels take precedence. If he is a playwright par excellence, the dramas would take first position and the novels be relegated to fourth place, and so on. If the author has written nothing but poetry, is it necessary merely for the sake of uniformity to crowd all his works into the third section and waste the others?

Author notation may be defined as a system of rules to be judiciously broken.



I

AMERICAN LIBRARY HISTORY

CHARLES KNOWLES BOLTON
The Boston Athenaeum

Jamestown and Plymouth were settled at a time when books were cherished possessions. The yeoman had his Geneva Bible and his book of the Psalms, with perhaps a history of wars or a work on husbandry. Leaders in affairs and men from the universities brought together collections ranging in size from twenty volumes to twenty times that number. Miles Standish's library of fifty volumes represented the taste of a well-read soldier. In the northern colonies theology dominated the selection, leaving perhaps one-fifth of the whole to other subjects. Colonial New England therefore reflected the intellectual taste of Oxford and Cambridge two centuries earlier. In a few cases general literature or science held a place, as in the remarkable library of Elder William Brewster of Plymouth, where history and poetry were conspicuous, or in that of Governor Winthrop of Connecticut, where the occult sciences were well represented. Brewster's library was dispersed, but the library of Rev. John Harvard became in 1638 the nucleus of the present Harvard university library, although the fire of 1764 destroyed all but a thread of contact between the old and the new collections.

At the South, colonial private libraries were of equal size and of more varied character. Col. Ralph Wormeley's, in Virginia, serving as a type, had many volumes relating to law, history, the drama, and poetry. Private collections very often became the foundation stones of early civic libraries, perpetuating their austerity into a less dogmatic age.

The colonial clergy bore as great a share in the spread of

learning as did St. Benedict or Alcuin of a darker age. Throughout Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas the influence of a clergyman, Rev. Dr. Thomas Bray of London, was everywhere felt on account of his efforts to provide small parochial or missionary libraries to aid the clergy to maintain standards of culture. Bray's libraries began to appear in America as early as 1697. One came to King's Chapel, Boston, others to Trinity Church, New York, to Philadelphia, Charleston in the Carolinas, and sixteen to Maryland, the colony which was under his especial charge. A library had also been begun in east New Jersey and many in the West Indies. Bray is said to have sent 34,000 volumes to America.

The Massachusetts Bay colony accepted a gift of eight books in 1629, and more volumes were selected, but the fate of all these books is unknown. This enlightened intent to establish an official library had its humorous aspect, for one of the eight volumes was that Prayer Book which the non-conforming colonists had determined to leave behind them in England.

A library established in the Town House at Boston through the will of Captain Robert Keayne, dated in 1653, had a more favored existence. It was composed of books in English, and the idea may have been suggested by the small municipal collections formed at the English Norwich and elsewhere as early as 1608.

New York owes its advent into library history to Rev. John Sharpe, chaplain at the fort, who proposed in 1712-13 a public school, a public library, and a catechizing chapel. The library was to be free to all. Sharpe's books, and those of the Corporation library of 1728, sent over by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, together with the much finer collections of the New York Society library, founded in 1754, were all swept away during the days when Washington and his men kept watch over General Howe.

Franklin once said that in his boyhood there was not one

good bookstore south of Boston. When as a lad he went down to Philadelphia to try his fortune as a printer he carried beneath his homely jacket not only a brave heart, but also a passion for books. He projected there in 1731 the first subscription library in the colonies. Franklin says: "I proposed that we should all of us bring our books to that room [hired for the meetings of a club], where they . . . would become a common benefit, each of us being at liberty to borrow such as he wished to read at home. . . . Yet some inconveniences occurring for want of the care of them, the collection, after about a year, was separated, and each took his books home again. And now I set on foot my first project of a public nature, that for a subscription library. . . . I was not able, with great industry, to find more than fifty persons, mostly young tradesmen, willing to pay down for this purpose forty shillings each, and ten shillings per annum. On this little fund we began. The books were imported; the library was open one day in the week for lending to the subscribers, on their promissory notes to pay double their value if not duly returned." This collection eventually became the Philadelphia Library Society, and half a century later was strengthened by adding the Loganian library, which had been founded in 1745 through the generosity of James Logan, famous as the secretary of William Penn. To this period, also, belongs the Redwood library, established at Newport, Rhode Island, in 1747, and a similar library brought together in 1748 by seventeen young men in Charleston, South Carolina.

Up to this time there had been half-hearted attempts in Boston and New York to establish civic collections; there were also Bray or parish libraries, now for the most part in disuse, and several subscription libraries which flourished because they were allied with social life or with various trades. As early as 1774 the Connecticut Courant declared the utility of public libraries to be "too manifest to be denied." But

before the year 1850 the "public library" had no such character as it possesses today. Its treasures were open to those who met prescribed conditions as to fees or education.

The booksellers, adopting an English custom of circulating books for a small charge, satisfied the general demand for light literature. Two of these, John Mein of Boston and Garrat Noel in New York, had large collections of fiction and travel as early as 1765, and issued catalogs of the books. The library fee was twenty-eight shillings per annum.

The first decade of the next century witnessed a great social and intellectual awakening in America, influenced largely by conditions in France. Every department of learning had its devotees and its club. Almost every club had its reading-room or library. Many scholarly libraries or Athenaeums sprang up in New England and as far to the south as Georgia.

Two milestones of this period should not be passed without a pause. The conception of a library maintained by public taxation gained ground very slowly in England under the parliamentary leadership of William Ewart in the middle of the nineteenth century. In America as early as 1697 Sir Francis Nicholson had asked the Maryland House of Burgesses to petition King William III for permission to turn part of the revenue for arms and ammunition into the purchase of books for general reading, to be under a commissary of the province. But this plan did not develop a library. A colonial library was begun by New Hampshire in 1770, and re-established in 1818; a more substantial state library was established by New Jersey in 1796, this being the first of a type that under varying conditions has served many states, expanding under the influence of a wider conception of the state's duty to its people far beyond the legislative function. South Carolina founded a legislative library in 1814, and the best known of the early state libraries, that in New York, had its origin in 1818, two years after Pennsylvania took the same action.

The national government founded a library in the year 1800; it was so small that it scarcely needed the catalog which was printed two years later. In 1814, when the British troops took the capitol, there occurred the first of a series of fires, followed by others in 1825 and 1851. In 1815 Jefferson's library was purchased, and since that day many famous special collections have been added. The Library of Congress now aids libraries through printed bibliographies, catalog cards, and other material helpful to librarians and students. Its own card catalog is "the most eminent bibliographical work yet accomplished by any government," and it is building up a large card catalog of works owned by the great libraries outside of Washington. Although established as a legislative library it now serves all departments of government activity and is in all but the name a national library.

These were steps away from the establishment of libraries under private control. Salisbury in Connecticut, through a bequest, established a town library in 1803, and Peterboro in New Hampshire thirty years later created a library out of town funds. These acts foreshadowed the public library movement; they recognized the value of books in a community, although it was left for George Ticknor, the aristocrat and scholar, to grasp the full significance of the great benefit that might come when books should be within the reach of every man. He wrote in 1851, while advocating a policy for the new public library in Boston: "I would establish a library which differs from all free libraries yet attempted; I mean one in which any popular books, tending to moral and intellectual improvement, shall be furnished in such numbers of copies that many persons can be reading the same book at the same time; in short that not only the best books of all sorts, but the pleasant literature of the day shall be made accessible to the whole people when they most care for it, that is, when it is fresh and new."

The above declaration of policy, not proclaimed by an agitator but by the owner of one of the finest private libraries in America, brought consternation to the trustees of the new institution. To avoid disruption they reluctantly abandoned their plans for a scholarly reference library, and Ticknor's radically liberal views thus established the form of the first great modern public library in the United States.

The first convention of librarians, held in New York September 15-17, 1853, with fifty-three delegates present, bears witness to the awakening which was taking place in America as well as in England, and not alone among public men, but also among librarians.

Sets of periodicals, many of them imperfect and all of them deep in dust, had long glutted the shelves of every library. William F. Poole in 1848 put forth a modest index to the treasures of knowledge to be found in these forgotten volumes. It was the beginning of Poole's Index. With him other men came into prominence on account of their progressive ideas. Jewett, who failed in his endeavor to create in Washington a great national library, came to the Boston public library in 1855, and there became still better known through his rules for cataloging. A decade went by, and Justin Winsor, meeting a friend, was induced to succeed Jewett in 1868, just as Poole was going to Cincinnati and Cutter was coming to the Athenaeum library in Boston. These were zealous spirits, and in 1876 they met others of restless activity at Philadelphia, where the American Library Association was formed, and the Library journal was established as its advocate.

This is not the place for an account of the work of the the American Library Association with its membership of over three thousand and its imposing annual volume of Proceedings, nor of the state and local organizations, nor again of library journalism, which would form a chapter in itself. Into these

efforts the heart and mind of American librarianship have entered, and the record will not be forgotten.

The character of American libraries in 1876 is evident from the fact that of one hundred and three delegates to the conference mentioned above only fourteen represented institutions such as those which we now call free public libraries. John Edmands and Edmund M. Barton were present, with Melvil Dewey, Richard R. Bowker, Samuel S. Green, James L. Whitney, J. G. Rosengarten, and several others whose names are still familiar to younger librarians many years after this first gathering.

It is difficult in this day of library progress to comprehend the magnitude of the debt due to Edwards, Ewart, and Panizzi in England, and to these leaders in America. Dewey and Cutter were developing their systems of classification; rules for cataloging were being devised and altered on both sides of the Atlantic, and library devices were leading step by step through experience to the present conception of library administration.

The connection of women with libraries has grown with their wider activities in all fields of work. Mrs. Anne Wadell, an able woman of affairs in New York, was named in the charter of the Society library in 1772. During the first half of the next century few women used libraries of general literature. Indeed Charles Folsom, an erudite and distinguished librarian in 1855, protested against their having access to "the corrupter portions of the polite literature." A few scholars of the sex were admitted to the large libraries, but most women contented themselves with the more insidious forms of corruption then to be had at circulating and subscription libraries connected with stationers' and bakers' stores.

At a period when the foremost librarians received scarcely more than two thousand dollars a year for their services, and most of them not over half that sum, women did not belong

to the staff. The growth of the public library movement and the advent of the Civil War mark the entrance of women into the staff of almost every institution in the land.

In 1850 America had no other collection equal to the 68,000 volumes at Harvard, the Library of Congress rising to scarcely more than two-thirds that of the college library. New York was represented by the Society library with 30,000 books, and Philadelphia by its Library Company with 55,000 books—the second in size in America. Today these collections would not seem large for a prosperous town.

The library movement in the United States is indebted to many forces for its success. The Mathers, Prince, Sharpe, and others of the colonial clergy fostered the collection and care of books. Franklin, a great social and scientific factor in our development, emphasized the library as an aid to the skilled laborer. Following the American Revolution and its period of inaction, French ideals had an awakening impulse, caught up and carried on by the far-reaching lyceum system of rural lectures. No doubt also the articles by Edward Edwards and the speeches of Ewart had their echo on this side of the Atlantic. Certainly the Report of the Commissioners appointed by the House of Commons to inquire into the constitution and government of the British Museum under Panizzi, published in 1850, must have amused and aroused men interested in books, in administration, and in social forces.

In England the struggle was for the right to support libraries by taxation. In the United States this was conceded early and progress was more rapid. Moreover gifts and bequests for libraries were so large as to become in time characteristic of the philanthropic spirit of the century. The Astor family, James Lenox, and Samuel J. Tilden in New York, Enoch Pratt in Baltimore, Dr. James Rush in Philadelphia, Newberry and Crerar in Chicago, and Carnegie in Pittsburgh, are conspicuous for the magnitude of their benefactions; but very many

others, having given their entire fortunes, are equally worthy of record. Mr. Carnegie's first library offer was to Pittsburgh in 1881. Since that time he has given thirty millions of dollars for libraries in the United States, and fifteen millions to other parts of the Anglo-Saxon world.

American librarians have been wont to say that English administrators do not trust their public sufficiently. They in turn claim that Americans extend the scope of the public library beyond its proper functions as a preserver and distributor of books. In the memorable debates which preceded the passage of the English Act of 1850 in the House of Commons, American progress was commended; but the more conservative members feared that their own libraries would become "normal schools of agitation," and that the working-classes would soon be asking for "quoits, peg-tops and foot-balls."

Sunday opening, first tried in Cincinnati in 1870, was one of the earliest steps in the radical movement in America; it was a fruitful subject for debate a generation ago. Work with children, now recognized as an essential part of good library service, has developed an attractive field for young women who have peculiar fitness and the best of training. Devices for popularizing a library by the introduction of university extension lectures, greater liberality in the circulation of books (the two-book system for example), open shelves (begun in 1890), and free delivery, all have earnest advocates, and all have had their part in bringing the younger generation to the library doors. There is everywhere a desire to make the library both useful and beautiful, and library architecture, often in earlier days ill-adapted to the storing and use of books, now aims to meet the librarian's need as well as the architect's ideals.

An enlightened opinion has in some states forced special library legislation, but more often a few devoted men have obtained the laws that in time create a regard for libraries.

The library law of New York, passed in 1835, under which the state was to grant to a school district a sum of money equal to the sum appropriated by the district itself for the purchase of books, established the principle of taxation for the support of libraries. New Hampshire passed a very simple library law in 1849, with no limit as to appropriation and no conditions as to management. Massachusetts enacted in 1851 a brief law under which libraries multiplied rapidly in the commonwealth. Maine in 1854 passed an unsatisfactory law, permitting the levy of a dollar on each ratable poll to establish a library and twenty-five cents per poll for maintenance. Vermont did little better in 1865. The Ohio law of 1867 tied the library to the educational system. In 1872 Colorado passed a good law, and Illinois devised an elaborate and thoroughly satisfactory act which has influenced many states, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Michigan, California, Missouri, and others. Some sections of the country were for a long time very backward in library legislation, including Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and even New York, where the fairly convenient school district system was not altered till 1892.

The State Library Commission, which was established by Massachusetts in 1890 to foster town libraries, set an example that has been followed throughout the country; with increasing powers and a firmer conviction of the work to be accomplished state commissions have grown in importance and in the scope of their work for library extension. In many states the co-operation of the state commission and the state library has made the use of books a vital and far-reaching force for intelligent citizenship.

One has only to study library history in France, Germany, or Italy to realize that what has been done in the United States toward establishing an intimate relationship between good books and the social life of all classes in the community has been pioneer work. This vitalizing library spirit, radical though

it may be, has had its effect upon the old world as well as in the new. With it have come also mechanical improvements, such as systems of classification, alphabetizing by cards, and other American devices.. Libraries in the United States have accomplished much, but there is yet much to be tried and to be proved. The bounds or limitations of the public library as a social force are not within any man's ken, nor has the scholarly ideal been reached. The future is filled with promise, and library administration offers a career to all those who would be "missionaries of culture" as well as custodians of books.

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II. LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP
Superintendent of the Reading Room

HISTORY¹

The Library of Congress was established by virtue of an Act of Congress, approved April 24, 1800, appropriating \$5,000 for the purchase of books and for fitting up a suitable apartment in the Capitol to contain them. In 1802 a Joint Committee of both Houses on the Library was created; under direction of this committee the Library continued for many years, but with the abandonment of joint committees the control passed more and more to the librarian. Since 1897 the direction of the Library has been entirely in his hands as a matter of law.

In 1814 the Library, then numbering slightly over 3,000 volumes, was destroyed when the Capitol was burned by the British troops. Very shortly thereafter the library of Thomas Jefferson, amounting to about 7,000 volumes, was purchased as a nucleus of a new collection. A catalog of this library, made by Jefferson himself, was published in 1815. The system of classification used by him was followed in the arrangement of the books and in various published catalogs until 1864. The annual increase was steady but small (about 1,300 volumes) until a second disastrous fire in 1851 left but 20,000 volumes out of the 55,000 to which the collection had grown. Appropriations were made at once to restore the Library's quarters in

¹ Cf. Johnston, Wm. Dawson. History of the Library of Congress, vol. I, 1800-1864. Washington, Gov. print. office, 1904.

U.S. Library of Congress. Report of the Librarian for 1901. Washington, Gov. print. office, 1901; pp. 183-97; cf. also the annual reports from 1897 to date.

the Capitol and to replace at least in part the books destroyed. In 1865 these quarters were much enlarged and in 1867 the purchase for \$100,000 of the Peter Force Collection of Americana of some 60,000 articles increased materially the size of the Library, which had reached nearly 100,000 volumes in the previous year. In 1867 also the Library of the Smithsonian Institution of some 40,000 volumes, consisting largely of transactions of learned societies, was deposited with the Library of Congress, which has continued to act as the custodian for the Smithsonian Institution.

From 1846 to 1859 the copyright law required one copy of a copyrighted book to be deposited in the Library. The same provision was in force from 1865 to 1870. The act of July 8, 1870, placed the registration of copyrights under the care of the Librarian of Congress, and required the deposit of two copies of each article copyrighted. This provision remains in force, under the act of March 4, 1909.

With the administration of Dr. A. R. Spofford, appointed Librarian in 1864, the Library entered on a period of rapid growth. In addition to the Force Collection many smaller collections were acquired, large numbers of newspapers were secured and bound, and the manuscripts greatly increased by the purchase of the Rochambeau and other papers. The operation of the copyright law and the agreement with the Smithsonian Institution permitted the somewhat meager appropriations for the increase of the Library to be used to great advantage in the auction market and in buying foreign books. When Dr. Spofford retired from the active direction of the Library in 1897 it had grown to about a million volumes and pamphlets. The crowding of this collection in the extremely inadequate space at the Capitol had long since shown the imperative need of a separate building for the Library.

As early as 1873 Congress began to consider the matter of new quarters. In 1886, after thirteen years of discussion, the

construction of a new building was authorized on the site immediately east of the Capitol. This building was completed in February, 1897, at a cost of \$6,347,000, on land costing \$585,000. The books were moved to the building in the following summer, with the exception of a portion of the Law Library which still remains at the Capitol.

*Before the new building was occupied, Congress in the Appropriation Act of 1897 provided for the reorganization of the Library, created the office of Register of Copyrights, and increased the number of employees. Dr. Spofford, to whose unwearying zeal and enthusiasm the growth of the Library was largely due, became chief assistant librarian in 1897 on the appointment of John Russell Young as librarian. In 1899 Herbert Putnam was called from the Boston Library to the post made vacant by Mr. Young's death.

Since entering the new building¹ the Library has grown remarkably in size and in service rendered. It has become in fact, if not in name, the National Library. In 1910 its collections numbered: books, 1,793,158; maps and charts, 118,165; music, 517,806; prints, photographs, etc., 320,251. The number of persons employed (including those in the copyright office and those charged with the care of the building and grounds) is 484. It has come into active relations with the libraries of the country, and while rendering greatly increased service to Congress, has begun a career of service to the whole nation.

CONSTITUTION²

There is no single Act of Congress setting forth the constitution of the Library. Sections 80-100 of chap. 6 of the Revised Statutes of 1873 and the Appropriation Act of 1897 are the most

¹ For a description of the condition of the Library in 1900 cf. Putnam, H., *The Library of Congress*, Atlantic monthly, vol. 85, pp. 147-58. Cf. also Annual report of the librarian, 1901, pp. 292-351.

² Cf. Annual report for 1901, pp. 208-91.

important laws relating to the institution. The Library is classed by law as a branch of the legislative department of the government, and although the librarian and the superintendent of the building and grounds are appointed by the President, they report directly to Congress. Appropriations for its support are made annually by Congress in the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriations bill. The librarian and the superintendent each submits to the Treasury estimates of his respective needs, and appears before the appropriations committee in support of his recommendations.

The total appropriation for 1911 was \$627,245, divided as follows:

Contingent expenses	\$7,300.00	
Increase of library		
Books	\$100,000.00	
Law books	3,000.00	
Periodicals	5,000.00	
	<hr/>	108,000.00
Salaries	454,445.00	
Fuel, lights, furniture, etc.	57,500.00	
	<hr/>	\$627,245.00 ¹

The librarian handles no moneys, save those received from the sale of printed cards. All disbursements for salaries, contingent expenses, and purchases are made on his approval by the superintendent of the building and grounds, who is the disbursing officer of the Library.

The building is open from 9:00 a.m. until 10:00 p.m. except on Sundays and most holidays, when it is open from 2:00 until 10:00 p.m. The main reading room and the periodical reading room are open during these hours, and the other reading rooms and offices from 9:00 a.m. until 4:30 p.m.

¹ This sum is exclusive of an appropriation of \$10,000 for the completion of the book stack in the southeast court, and an annual credit of \$202,000 at the Government Printing Office for printing and binding.

The Library is absolutely free to any reader over sixteen years old. The privilege of drawing books for home use is confined to senators and representatives, certain high officials of the government¹, judges, and other persons designated by statute. The librarian, in pursuance of his authority to make rules and regulations, occasionally grants this privilege to scholars engaged in research. The government bureaus in Washington draw books freely for official use, usually through their librarians.¹

The purpose of the administration is the freest possible use of the books consistent with their safety, and the widest possible use consistent with the convenience of Congress. There is no limit to the number of books a reader may draw for reference use, and he has direct access to a reference collection of over 15,000 volumes in the main reading room. If his studies require that he have access to the shelves, this privilege is granted him, and if he needs to have the continuous use of the same books day after day, he is given a table where they may be reserved for him. When a typewriting machine will greatly facilitate a scholar's labors, a desk is provided in a room where readers will not be disturbed by its use. The Library has no force of copyists or photographers, but gives to those desiring to have extracts or facsimiles made the names and addresses of persons making a business of such work.

BUILDING

The plans for the building,² which was begun in 1886 and completed in 1897, were drawn by Messrs. Smithmeyer & Pelz, but the building was actually constructed and many architectural details worked out under General Thomas L. Casey, chief

¹ Cf. Annual report, 1907, pp. 70-78; *ibid.*, 1908, pp. 57-66.

² Cf. Small, Herbert, Handbook of the Library of Congress, Boston, 1909; Green, B. R., The new building for the Library of Congress, Library journal, vol. 21, pp. 13-20; Green, B. R., The building

of engineers, U.S. army, and after his death by Bernard R. Green, the present superintendent. The exterior is of grey granite, and the interior is highly decorated with marbles, sculpture, and paintings. The building occupies three and one-half acres of land, contains 7,500,000 cubic feet of space, and over eight acres of floor space. The book stacks are of steel (Snead-Green shelving), and the whole construction is fireproof. About a thousand readers can be accommodated at one time in the various reading rooms and alcoves. Owing to the rapid growth of the collections a book stack has been constructed (1909) in the southeast courtyard. This is lighted wholly by electricity, and ventilated by forced draught.

COLLECTIONS

The main collections of the Library are supplemented and strengthened by those of the several separate departments, maps, music, prints, law, and manuscripts. The Library proper is strongest in bibliography, public documents (especially those of foreign governments), Americana, economics, political science, public law and legislation, genealogy, and newspapers. Through the Smithsonian Institution extensive files of transactions of foreign learned societies are received. By virtue of the copyright law it has received the most complete collection in existence of the products of the American press. American local

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history and biography are represented with unusual fulness. The Yudin Collection of some 80,000 volumes of Russian works, purchased in 1907, is particularly valuable for the history of Russia and Siberia. A collection of Japanese books (9,000 volumes) was bought in 1907, and in 1908 the Huitfeldt-Kaas collection of Scandinavian literature of about 5,000 volumes. Orientalia is further represented by the Weber library of Sanskrit literature (3,018 volumes, 1,002 pamphlets). The Library has bought recently large numbers of the monumenta of European history, and is rapidly growing in the sciences, pure and applied.

ADMINISTRATION (9 persons)

The administrative officers of the Library are the librarian, chief assistant librarian, chief clerk, and secretary. The superintendent of the building and grounds with his aids has entire charge of the maintenance of the building, and makes all disbursements for the Library.

The duties of the librarian, chief assistant librarian, and secretary are those customary in libraries, save that the librarian is not under the direction of a board of trustees. The functions of the chief clerk are those of administrative assistant. He is charged with the discipline of the force, and in his office are kept the records of the service and of the expenditures under the appropriations for the Library and the allotment for printing and binding.

THE DIVISIONS

The Library force is organized into "divisions," each with a chief and assistants; some of the divisions, including the Copyright Office, are further divided into sections.

The Mail and Delivery Division (5 persons) handles all materials arriving at or dispatched from the library building, including all mail matter and all books delivered for outside use. The yearly mail received exceeds 225,000 items, including

articles received for copyright, but not including newspapers and periodicals.

The Order Division (13 persons), organized in 1900, attends to all business connected with the purchase of books, and handles in the first instance all material destined for the increase of the Library proper, including gifts, deposits, exchanges, and transfers.

No accession books are kept, as the files of vouchers contain all the information generally recorded in formal accession records. Every item approved for purchase is entered on a card, and from these cards the orders, in the form of lists, are prepared for the dealer. The result is a card catalog of accessions. All bills are paid by check on the treasury of the United States after the most careful auditing and final approval by the librarian. A card-ledger system is kept which shows at any moment the condition of each appropriation, the outstanding orders, bills paid, and balances available.

Printing Office and Bindery.—These are branches of the Government Printing Office, which supplies the equipment and details the workmen. The work done is solely for the Library, and is charged to the "allotment" of the Library for binding and printing. The allotment for 1911 was \$202,000. The printing office prints the catalog cards, and all needed forms and circulars.¹ Five linotype machines are kept constantly busy at the card work.

The binding for the Library is mainly done in the building. A special *Binding Division* (3 persons) has charge of forwarding material in proper shape, keeping accounts with the bindery, etc.

The Catalog Division (91 persons) deals with printed books and pamphlets only, and includes the work of classification, shelf-listing, labeling, preparation of copy of catalog cards

¹ The publications of the Library in book form are printed at the Government Printing Office, not at the Library Branch.

for the printer, proofreading, and filing cards in the various catalogs.

The Catalog Division not only catalogs and classifies the current accessions* (over 100,000 volumes annually), but has been engaged since 1899 in reclassifying and recataloging the entire collection. The greater part of the Library has now (1911) been reclassified, and new catalog entries have been made for over three-fourths of the entire collection. When this work was begun in 1899 there were approximately 700,000 volumes, exclusive of duplicates, to be handled. Moreover, the catalog being in the form of printed cards, a considerable force otherwise available for cataloging was necessarily devoted to proofreading. Not only has the enormous task been almost completed in a decade, but its results from day to day in the cards printed have been made available to the libraries of the whole country, assisting them to an extraordinary degree in the preparation of their catalogs and relieving them of a very considerable expense.

The system of classification adopted has been devised from a comparison of existing schemes, and a consideration of the particular conditions in this Library. The schedules are still somewhat subject to change, and therefore no complete scheme has been printed. The outlines for most of the classes have been issued in pamphlet form.

The main catalog¹ of books and pamphlets is in the form of printed cards, arranged in the "dictionary" order, i.e., author, title, and subject entries in one alphabet. The rules followed are those of the American and British Library Associations. There are also special catalogs in book form for many of the special collections, as prints, maps, manuscripts, etc. These are noted under the various divisions.

¹ For the earlier catalogs in book form see Ford, Paul Leicester, A list of the Library of Congress catalogs, *Library journal*, vol. 15, pp. 326-27. Also, Annual report of the librarian, 1901, Appendix II, pp. 362-67.

The Card-Distribution Section (27 persons), established in 1901, handles the accumulated stock of printed catalog cards and their distribution and sale.¹

The stock now (1911) numbers over 30,000,000 cards. These are stored by serial number in steel cases. Complete sets of one copy of each card published are on deposit in the principal library centers of the country, enabling inquirers in those places to ascertain whether a book is in the Library of Congress, and also facilitating greatly the ordering of printed cards. The cards are sold under the law governing the sale of public documents at the actual cost of manufacture plus 10 per cent—the maximum price being two cents per card, and one-half cent for each additional copy. In 1910 more than 1300 libraries and individuals purchased cards regularly.

The Bibliography Division (7 persons) deals with inquiries involving research too elaborate for the attendants in the reading room, or in form inconvenient for them to handle expeditiously; compiles lists of references on topics of current interest, particularly those pending in Congress. The division furnishes references in the case of numerous inquiries received by mail, and is also frequently called into service by members of Congress.

Reading Rooms (58 persons). The main reading room is in the center of the building. It has desks for 200 readers and sixty tables in the alcoves and galleries which are assigned to scholars making extended investigations. The issue desk is in the center. It is connected with the stacks, the Capitol, Smithsonian Division, and Librarian's Office by pneumatic tubes. Electric book carriers connect the desk with the north and south stacks, and with the Capitol. Books can ordinarily be delivered to readers in about five minutes after a request is handed in.

The alcoves surrounding the reading room contain a

¹ Cf. U.S. Library of Congress, *Handbook of Card Distribution*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1909, and subsequent Bulletins.

reference collection of some 15,000 volumes, to which access is entirely free. The card catalogs of the Library are on the floor of the reading room.

In addition to the main reading room there are separate reading rooms for senators and representatives; a station is maintained at the Capitol for the receipt and delivery of books (an electric carrier runs through a tunnel over 1,200 feet long connecting the station with the Library—the passage takes three minutes). There are also in their respective divisions reading rooms for periodicals and newspapers, fine arts, maps, and music.

Periodicals Division (12 persons), organized in 1901, handles all periodicals as received, and prepares the completed volumes for binding. The total number of periodicals received is in excess of 13,000. Over 1,000 newspapers are currently received, including about 275 foreign newspapers; of these 375 are bound and shelved. Half the space in the new stack in the southeast court is fitted up with shelving designed especially for newspapers. The files of American newspapers are very extensive,¹ while the collection of newspapers of the eighteenth century is perhaps the largest in America.

The reading room for periodicals occupies the south side of the building on the main floor. It has seats for 250 readers, and 400 newspapers and 3,500 magazines are kept in this room.

Documents Division (5 persons), organized in 1901. The function of this division is to acquire, arrange, and make available for use the publications of governments, national, local, and municipal, and of quasi-public bodies, such as commercial organizations, international congresses, and the like. This division has charge of the exchange of publications of the federal government for those of other nations. The average annual receipt of these foreign documents is about 7,500 volumes and

¹ Cf. U.S. Library of Congress, Check-list of American newspapers, 1901. (New edition in preparation.)

pamphlets. The average annual accessions of all documents total over 40,000.

The Division of Manuscripts (4 persons), established 1897, has the custody of manuscript material not classified as maps, music, or prints. There is a special reading room for the consultation of manuscripts, in which is placed the card index to the collection. The collection consists almost wholly of the papers of American public men and of the federal government, and is by far the largest in America. It is constantly growing by gift and purchase. Calendars have been published of several of the groups of papers,¹ and the *Journal of the Continental Congress* is being published by the Library. The various departments of the government are authorized to turn over to the Library material of historical importance as it ceases to be needed in the departments. Much extremely valuable material has been received in pursuance of this law.

Manuscripts are repaired (frequently a task of great difficulty), mounted, and bound into volumes. The repairers and mounters handle about 8,500 pieces annually. Index cards are written for all important items in each manuscript.

Manuscripts are consulted by readers only under the supervision of attendants. The privilege of making extracts and photographs is granted on permit from the librarian.

Division of Maps and Charts (6 persons), organized in 1897. All maps, atlases, and many works on cartography are in the custody of this division (118,165 pieces, 1910). Maps are kept flat in steel cases, each map in a separate manila paper folder. The collection is richest in maps of North America,²

¹ The Franklin papers (1905); John Paul Jones manuscripts (1903); Papers of James Monroe (1904); Naval records of the American Revolution (1906); Vernon-Wager manuscripts (1904); Washington aids (1906); Washington correspondence (1906); Washington manuscripts (1901).

² Cf. U.S. Library of Congress, *A list of maps of America in the Library of Congress . . .* by P. Lee Phillips. Washington, Gov. print. office, 1901.

and includes a number of manuscript maps. The collection of atlases is especially noteworthy,¹ comprising over 15,000 volumes, including most of the early printed atlases.

*The Division of Music*² (6 persons), organized 1897, has the custody of the collection of music (both scores and works of music), numbering over 517,000 items in 1910, with yearly accessions of more than 25,000. The greater part of the collection has been acquired by copyright, but of late extensive purchases have been made in addition. The Library now owns one of the largest and finest collections of music in the world, and by far the largest in America.³

Division of Prints (5 persons), organized in 1897. The collection of prints of all sorts and the books and periodicals devoted to the fine arts are in the charge of this division. In 1910 the collection numbered 320,251 pieces, including the Garrett collection of 19,113 and the Bradley collection of 1,980 engravings deposited with the Library. Card catalogs of all prints are made and filed in the division. A catalog of the Hubbard collection of prints was issued in 1905.

Law Library (6 persons); 138,059 volumes in 1910. Part of the Law Library (American and English common law, reports and legal periodicals) is kept at the Capitol, where it occupies rooms on the ground floor. In the library proper are placed works on foreign law, international law, and nearly complete duplicate sets of American reports, as well as a selection of treatises.

Under the direction of the law librarian acting under

¹ Cf. U.S. Library of Congress, A list of geographical atlases in the Library of Congress, compiled under the direction of P. Lee Phillips. 2 v. Washington, Gov. print. office, 1909.

² Sonneck, O. G. S. The Music Division of the Library of Congress in the proceedings of the Music Teachers' National Association, 1908.

³ U.S. Library of Congress, Dramatic music: catalogue of full scores. Compiled by O. G. S. Sonneck. Washington, Gov. print. office, 1908.

special authorization from Congress, an index to the Federal Statutes from 1873 to 1908 was compiled and published in 1908-11.¹

Copyright Office (84 persons), organized in its present form in 1897. It has the entire "copyright business" in its charge. The office is under the register of copyrights, who "acts under the direction and supervision of the librarian* of Congress." It receives and records all material offered for copyright entry; turning over to the Library such items as are desired. Fees received from owners of copyrights are turned into the U.S. Treasury. These amounted to \$104,644.95 in 1910, exceeding the appropriation for the office by \$15,685.00. The total number of articles deposited was 219,024 in 1910. The work of the office in acknowledging entries and sending certificates of copyright is kept strictly up to date. The office publishes in weekly and monthly issues a *Catalogue of Copyright Entries*, recording each item copyrighted, and forming the most complete record made of the product of the press of America.

The Library of Congress and Other Libraries.—The resources of the Library of Congress have been put at the disposal of other libraries, (1) by the sale and deposit of printed catalog cards; (2) inter-library loans; (3) distribution and sale of its publications, including bibliographies of special topics; (4) co-operation in publishing. The sale of printed cards has been mentioned above.² The inter-library loan is a matter of comparatively recent development. It acts on the principle that the duty of the National Library is to aid the unusual need with the unusual book. Books are lent to other libraries for

¹ An Index analysis of the Federal Statutes . . . by G. W. Scott and M. G. Beaman. Prepared under the direction of the Librarian of Congress. 2 vols. Washington, Gov. print. office, 1908-11. (*Not distributed by the Library, but sold only by the Superintendent of Documents.*)

² P. 10.

the use of investigators engaged in research expected to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge. The material lent cannot include, therefore, books that should be in a local library, or that can be borrowed from a library (such as a state library) having a particular duty to the community from which the application comes; nor books that are inexpensive and can easily be procured; nor books for the general reader, mere textbooks, or popular manuals; nor books where the purpose is ordinary student or thesis work, or for mere self-instruction. Nor can it include material which is in constant use at Washington, or whose loan would be an inconvenience to Congress, or to the executive departments of the government, or to reference readers in the Library of Congress.

Genealogies and local histories are not as a rule available for loan, nor are newspapers, the latter forming part of a consecutive historical record which the Library of Congress is expected to retain and preserve; and only for serious research can the privilege be extended to include volumes of periodicals.

The expense of transportation must be borne by the borrowing library.

*The Publications*¹ of the Library are distributed by exchange with other institutions, and by sale through the office of the Superintendent of Documents of the Government Printing Office. A very limited number is distributed gratis.

The Library has co-operated with the American Library Association in editing and publishing the "A. L. A. Catalog" of 1904 and the "A. L. A. Portrait Index," and with the libraries of the District of Columbia in the "Union List of Periodicals, Transactions, and Allied Publications," issued in 1901.

¹ U.S. Library of Congress, Publications issued since 1897. January 1911.

III

THE STATE LIBRARY

J. I. WYER, JR.

The New York State Library

This chapter was planned to treat of the government library as a type. The work of the Library of Congress, the chief example of the type, seemed, however, to call for a separate account (chap. ii). Therefore the present chapter will discuss the state library.

The exact nature and business of the state library should by now be pretty well fixed, its aim and work pretty definitely settled both in concept and in current practice in those libraries which may be considered typical.

The American Library Association has been discussing these things among others for nearly forty years, the National Association of State Libraries for fifteen years, in an effort to determine the place and function of the state library. During this time, the library movement has grown greatly in volume and extent, its work has differentiated sharply, and certain pronounced types of libraries have been developed, each taking for its province a certain part of the ever more highly specialized work. Of these types the state library is one. For the present purpose the term state library will not mean any library owned by the state, for this in different states would include the libraries of the state universities, state historical societies, normal schools, and the charitable and penal institutions, which are themselves of other distinct types, as school, college, or special libraries, and are described in other chapters of this Manual.

By state library is here meant only that one library in each state which is thus specifically termed; which is located in the capital city, usually in the capitol building, and which serves

the government, the people, and the library interests of the state as distinguished from any lesser or more restricted constituency.

In this sense, the state library is part of the official equipment of every American commonwealth. The earliest were those of Pennsylvania and New Jersey established in 1796, of Ohio in 1817, of New York in 1818. In most states admitted to the Union since 1800, the library was established very soon after admission; in many of them territorial libraries existed for some years before statehood.

In seeking for the province of the state library, we find that in each state it is usually formally defined by law, but it is clear at once that these earlier notions of this province would today appear narrow and inadequate. From the thought of a library, usually a law library, chiefly or solely designed for the state's official family, the legislature, courts, administrative departments, and officers—in brief, for state employees—the conception latterly and in many states has grown to mean a library which, without dropping any of its original duties, shall hold much the same relation to all library endeavor in the state as the Department of Education or Public Instruction holds toward all educational endeavor. Besides the functions of advice, inspection, organization, extension, and supervision which this comparison suggests, the state library should supplement all other libraries by serving as a central collection ready to send to any part of the state the unusual books that local libraries cannot supply.

In this quest of the true province of the state library may we not with assurance and for convenience set down a few points which discussion and experience have settled and upon which both theory and practice are by now agreed?

First: A state-wide service. In 1818 the act founding the New York State Library read that it should be "a public library for the use of the government and of the people of the state."

If we are tempted to feel that the legislature then took refuge in a good-sounding phrase, with no far vision or full perception of its wide implications, we can at least be very sure that as, not New York alone, but other states as well have steadily advanced to the literal fulfilment of that early and prophetic program there have been hearty assent to, and approval of, every effort to realize the ideal which is the present conception of the state library. The founders of our early state libraries would doubtless be very much astonished could they return and see today the stature to which have grown the tiny library infants to which their early laws gave birth, yet it is hard to believe that this growth, this extension of its functions and interests to embrace the book-thirsty of the whole state, would evoke from them anything but hearty approval for the wisdom which has, in response to new conditions and new needs, so greatly expanded their original conception of the state library.

The state-wide conception is now the popular and accepted one. The burden of proof rests heavily upon the conservative or obstinate state library management which still clings to the antiquated idea of service to the state's official family only. Such a library today is likely to be awakened rudely by legislative resolution seeking to know why such or such a line of work notably performed in other states is neglected locally, or by mandatory statute establishing new work in charge of other agencies more willing and alert. If there be one sure trait of modern state library conduct, confirmed by popular approval and sanctioned by liberal money grants, it is this conception of state-wide service and obligation. If there are states where the state library still clings to the old idea, where a collection wholly or chiefly of law books is held sacred to the exclusive and infrequent use of courts, legislature, or state officials; states where the library still is waiting in dignified aloofness for the few privileged people to come to it, whose custodians have never moved to carry the library to the people—of such

it may be said that they are out of touch with current library progress, ignoring wonderful potential possibilities and inviting themselves and their libraries to a place in the rear of the procession.

Second: A single agency for all state library activities. Are we not agreed fully on this? I hope and believe so, although agreement is of later date than on the first proposition. Let us state the thesis in some detail. At the state library should be centered all library work done in the state's name. In addition to the duties of advice, inspection, extension, supervision, and circulation mentioned above, it is appropriate for the state library to distribute the state's public documents to schools, colleges, and other libraries; to allot and distribute its library grants and subsidies; to give library instruction; to maintain traveling libraries; to aid in the selection and purchase of books; to compile and print useful aids to library administration, bibliographies, reference lists, and historical monographs; to do reference and bibliographic work by mail, telegraph, and telephone; to carry on legislative reference work; to collect, preserve, and publish the manuscript records of the state or any of its political divisions—all these and other functions now admittedly appropriate, nay necessary, in any state should be combined in, and carried out by, one agency, the state library. This is no longer an ideal, for it is realized in several states, notably in New York and California, and the trend of library co-ordination sets strongly this way. That it is not realized in more states is because the functions which should have been conserved in one and only one state library office are too often dissipated and delegated to more than one, often to several, libraries, boards, or commissions.

In central and western states where the state library is small and indifferent and a strong state university has developed a larger library completely administered, it may be better, especially where the university is in the capital city, for library

instruction to be done at the university, which might also more efficiently conduct certain forms of library inspection and extension. In most states, too, the university library better than any other is able to handle highly specialized reference work. Most college or university libraries, however, are restricted as to outside loans and work by primary obligations to their immediate constituencies.

There are states with a state library and a library commission; with a state library and two library commissions; with a state library, a library commission, and a state historical society library. There are states with a state library, the obvious and logical center for all library activities, where the usual duties which should be performed by such a central library office have been divided among other departments, boards, and offices, not only with inevitable wasteful duplication, but, worse still, with no opportunities to perfect that one close-knit organization which shall seize every chance for effective co-ordination, and for the weaving of a single firm library fabric.

It is interesting to note the reasons for this uneconomic multiplication of the state's library agencies. The root of it lies in the old, original idea of the narrow function of the state library, and beyond this, rather a logical result of it, the political control and management of the state library.

This political connection put place-hunters in our state libraries, men who in many cases (though not in all, for there were eminent and honorable exceptions) were looking for the fewest books for the fewest people with the least work. To such men, library extension was repugnant. When the library commission movement began in the early nineties most of the state libraries and their custodians were either indifferent or actively opposed to undertaking this new work of stirring people up to want something they never had heard of, and they did not want the library commission attached to the state

library any more than the pioneers themselves of library commission work wanted it there.

As a result a movement took place to create other and new agencies apart from the state libraries, which the pioneers in library extension were either unable to interest or feared to intrust with the new work, and consequently there has grown up this multiplication of agencies which we now deplore. .

Before any central library office (and it should be called the state library) can do the utmost to co-ordinate and advance library interests in any state, it must have the field to itself.

Third: The recognition of library work as an expert and highly specialized service. This recognition is neither so cordial nor so widespread as could be wished, yet there has been a decided movement of public opinion in this direction and a very palpable and substantial progress can be cited as having marked the past thirty years. These comforting statements can be supported by a glance at some of the changes that have marked the administrative status and legal control of state libraries. There is a puzzling variety of methods for governing state libraries. There seems never to have been any doubt as to the need for such an institution, but great uncertainty as to what to do with it and just where to attach it to the governmental machinery. It seems to have been variously regarded as an annex to the courts, a separate but unclassified institution, and an educational appurtenance, with a stubbornly persistent tendency to regard it, under any of these forms, as legitimate political spoil. Yet if we study carefully such changes as have been made in the mode of governing state libraries it is apparent that they have almost always emphasized its specialized service and have tended to classify it more and more definitely with educational agencies; e.g., in 1844 the control of the New York State Library was taken from an *ex-officio* board of political officers and lodged with the regents of the University of the State of New York. The result was that while there were five

librarians in the first twenty-six years of political control, there have been only six during the seventy years of control by the university. In Oregon last year the government of the state library was taken from the supreme court and placed with the library commission. These salutary changes are merely typical of many which might be cited. They result in a worthier and more dignified public estimate of the state library and its work, an undisturbed and increased length of service for the librarians with an accompanying continuity of administration which affects favorably the work of the library.

This recognition of library work as an expert and specialized service is most noticeable in the growing tendency in state and government libraries to choose librarians *for* librarians. The conspicuous example was the calling of Dr. Herbert Putnam from the Boston public library to the Library of Congress, the first recognition of professional experience in an appointment to this position. The latest appointments of state librarians in Massachusetts, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and New York are other encouraging cases in point. Each such appointment, when justified by its fruits, fixes a sound precedent and establishes a wholesome principle whose effect on future appointments is cumulative though, alas, not always controlling. Despite the marked and substantial advance in this very important matter, in too many states, while men (and sometimes women) of character and standing are frequently appointed, the controlling considerations are social, political, or personal, instead of professional. That earnest, active, and personally admirable men are often thus appointed neither mitigates the reproach nor makes impropriety proper.

There have recently been two flagrantly political appointments. In each case, the men turned out were originally appointed in the same objectionable way and were without professional fitness or achievement, but against neither were any charges made nor any fault found and each had behind

him fifteen years of honest and useful service, marked by notable library growth and achievement. There is no valid reason for turning out such men. Even if their successors had been men of pre-eminent professional standing, it would have been only a good excuse, not a good reason. The same strictures hold against the "beauty" contests which have marked the choice of state librarians in some of the southern states.¹ All such criteria and ideals are wrong. The library development and shepherding of a commonwealth is work which latterly has assumed a definiteness and scope heretofore unknown, which mark it as highly specialized endeavor requiring for its proper conduct a large measure of sympathy with educational work and pertinent experience.

The director of a state library should be chosen with the same care and from many of the same motives that govern the choice of the president of the state university, or any college. Political, personal, or denominational considerations have no proper part in it nor is there any sound reason why search for the best person should not be carried to any distance, although New York is probably the only state that has ever appointed a non-resident as state librarian purely on the very proper grounds of high personal character and distinguished professional achievement.²

In practice, however, the methods of appointment of the librarian are as various as the ways by which the library is governed, ranging from popular election in Nevada and election by the legislature or supreme court in several states, to appointment, usually by the governor, by the governing board of the library, or (in Louisiana and Rhode Island) by the secretary of state.

It is hard to devise a method of appointment which shall surely recognize fitness, pertinent education, and experience

¹Library Journal 23:62 and 33:101.

²The reference is to the appointment of Mr. E. H. Anderson in 1905.

more than personal and political considerations. The best results in the past seem to have come from lodging the power of appointment with a special library board most of whose members serve *ex officio* and are connected with the educational institutions or work of the state, the others appointed by the governor for long terms, or with that board or body which has administrative direction of the state's educational activities. The objection to control by the supreme court is that the library is distinctly a subordinate or incidental matter and the chief or sole interest of such a governing board is usually the law library which is but a small part of the varied work which awaits the modern state library. More objectionable still is it to have the clerk of the court, the secretary of state, or some other political official named by law as *ex officio* state librarian. Too much importance, however, must not be attached to the precise way in which state libraries are governed or their librarians appointed. When the nature of their work comes to be more explicitly recognized, as public opinion is quicker and more insistent to acknowledge it as expert service, as organized professional sentiment becomes more active and influential, it will matter less and less just what is the actual method or machinery of appointment.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC NOTE

After their own annual or biennial reports, the *Papers and Proceedings* of the National Association of State Libraries are the most important sources of information about state libraries. It seems worth while, therefore, to indicate with some particularity the bibliographic vicissitudes of their publication. The following data are arranged by successive annual meetings from 1 to 17.

1. Washington, D.C., November 16-18, 1898.

Summary in L.J. 23:668-69; never published in full.

2. Indianapolis, Ind., October 24-26, 1899.

Summary in L.J. 24:623-25; never published in full.

3. Harrisburg, Pa., November 20-22, 1900.
Full *Proceedings* in P.L. 6:17-45.
Summary in L.J. 25:739-41; never published separately.
4. Waukesha, Wis., July 5, 1901.
5. Magnolia, Mass., June 18, 1902.
6. Niagara Falls, N.Y., June 24-26, 1903.
Summary in L.J. 28:608-14; P.L. 8:371-80.
7. St. Louis, Mo., October 18-19, 1904.
Summary in L.J. 29:C254-58; P.L. 10:26-30.
Full *Proceedings and Addresses* for meetings 4-7 appear only in separate pamphlets issued annually by the Association.
8. Portland, Ore., July 5-6, 1905.
Full *Proceedings and Addresses* appear in separate pamphlet and in L.J. 30:C225-52.
9. Narragansett Pier, June 30-July 2, 1906.
Proceedings and Addresses appear only in separate pamphlet.
10. Asheville, N.C., May 24-28, 1907.
Full *Proceedings and Addresses* appear in separate pamphlet and in A.L.A. Bulletin 1:193-230.
11. Lake Minnetonka, Minn., June 25-26, 1908.
Full *Proceedings and Addresses* appear in separate pamphlet and in A.L.A. Bulletin 2:260-304.
12. Bretton Woods, N.H., July 1-2, 1909.
Proceedings and Addresses in A.L.A. Bulletin 3:281-336 and in separate pamphlet.
13. Mackinac, Mich., July 1-5, 1910.
Proceedings and Addresses in separate pamphlet and in A.L.A. Bulletin 4:689-731.
14. Pasadena, Cal., May 18-24, 1911.
Summary in A.L.A. Bulletin 5:215-17, but full *Proceedings and Addresses* only in separate pamphlet.
15. Ottawa, Canada, June 26-July 2, 1912.
Not yet printed.
16. Kaaterskill, N.Y., June 23-29, 1913.
Not yet printed.
17. Washington, D.C., May 27-28, 1914.
Proceedings and Addresses in separate pamphlet and in A.L.A. Bulletin 8:271-327.

An earlier considerable account, now wholly of historical importance, is the article by Dr. Henry A. Homes, "State and territorial libraries," on pp. 292-311 of the government report on Public libraries in the United States, 1876.

A few careful contributions to the history of particular state libraries have appeared, among which may be cited Brigham, Johnson, A library in the making—pioneer history of the Territorial and State Library of Iowa, 98 pp.; Annals of Iowa, October, 1912—January, 1913; and Homes, H. A., The New York State Library (in Hough, F. B., Historical and statistical record of the University of the State of New York, 1784-1884, pp. 733-43).

Long runs, in some cases full sets, of the reports of nearly twenty state libraries are indexed in Moody, K. T., Index to library reports, Chicago, 1913.

The articles in professional journals are noted in Cannons, H. G. T., Bibliography of library economy, 1910, Sections A19-20 and C6-10, and in Library work, 1912 (cumulated volume), pp. 374-78.

V

PROPRIETARY AND SUBSCRIPTION LIBRARIES

C. K. BOLTON

The Boston Athenaeum

Since the days of Nineveh there have been almost as many administrative forms of library control as there are centuries. The temple library with its priestly diviners, the Royal library with its masters of law and languages, the monastic library with its scribes, each had its special epoch in which it flourished and developed a system of library management. With the change from clay and papyrus to parchment, Greek and Roman culture grew, and then the advent of the printing press gave to the western world all the wealth of thought that had been treasured in clay and parchment.

Gradually the way has opened for great libraries of reference and then for circulating collections of books. These circulating libraries were at first of two kinds, subscription and proprietary. The payment of an annual fee or subscription entitled a person to a year's enjoyment of literature. The fee, if small, provided books poor in quality and manufacture, and the bakery or stationer's furnished an inexpensive domicile. Thus the subscription library held sway in the pathway of least resistance. It did not satisfy persons of wealth and taste, but it did serve women who wanted fiction and men who frequented mechanics' institutes and kindred trade societies. Its symbol has always been the buff paper jacket with its printed label. The subscription library has kept to its province, although, as Greenwood says of English mechanics' libraries, being "poverty itself," it has not met the finer needs of the community. Where the dues have been high, above the usual five shillings annually in England or two

cents a day here, it has been difficult to differentiate subscription from proprietary libraries as to their success. Franklin's library of 1731 in Philadelphia was in its origin of the subscribing mechanic type, but perhaps because he was himself of large mould he founded a library which became more akin to the stockholders' or proprietors' library of our own day.

The library founded at Edinburgh in 1725, another in London in 1740, and the famous Lyceum library founded in Liverpool in 1758 match in time and size the Library Company of Philadelphia (1731), the Company of the Redwood library at Newport (1747), the Charles-Town Library Society, established in South Carolina in 1748, and the New York Society library of 1754. These libraries represent more or less completely the principle of corporate ownership instead of fees, and, if we judge by their atmosphere, there is just the difference between the proprietary and the subscription library in the attitude of its patrons that there is between the proprietor of land and the tenant.

Since the year 1850 the word "public" in library usage has become nearly an equivalent for "free," yet in the exact sense the proprietary library, though not free, still is a *public* library, just as a tavern is a public house or a stage-coach is a public conveyance, to be distinguished from the gentleman's private library and a man's house or carriage. The statutes of many proprietary libraries require each share-purchaser to be approved by the trustees, yet in practice this provision often either has fallen into neglect or its observance has become purely formal.

The proprietary library flourished greatly just before the reorganization of social forces that have brought about our modern democracy—a democracy of trade schools and state universities, of municipal free baths and concerts, of free clinics and other provisions for social betterment. The modern public library in the United States is a product of this democracy; it offers to all classes, differing both socially and intellectually, the

books which are adapted to the varying tastes of a community. It is no mere sop to the poor, as too often is the case in England or on the continent. But the underlying principle of social mingling, in so far as it denotes a new experiment in democracy, will require the power of virgin soil for its successful development. The proprietary library, on the other hand, is of the warp and woof of organized society. As men acquire culture and wealth they come together to enjoy literature and art, it may be in the Serapeum at Alexandria, in the house of Aristotle at Athens, or in a library built up but yesterday and maintained by kindred spirits. We hear it said that the public library is to take the place of the older type. If, however, as Mayor Gaynor said at the dedication of the beautiful new public library building in New York, all true progress is very slow, then the fraternal ideals of the public library movement will not supplant in one century or in ten the race instinct which unites "birds of a feather."

At the Narragansett Pier Conference the round table on proprietary libraries brought out many contrasting virtues of the older and newer types. Said Mr. Swift:

"If the proprietary library seems to be an aristocratic institution, let it go at that. It is relatively harmless as compared to more serious causes of separation of class from mass. Furthermore it would be a mistake to think that the proprietors of these libraries are all highly prosperous; many of them doubtless deny themselves other extravagances to obtain the modest privilege of getting books to read in a place and in a manner which suits their fancy."

Before turning to the other side of the picture, let us read Dr. Fletcher's ethical defence of an exclusive library—a defence that a century ago would not have been thought necessary outside of France. He says: "There will always be those who object to proprietary libraries, as to private schools, on political and social grounds, charging against both a tendency to foster

class distinctions in the community. Only under Socialism could it be fairly claimed that education should be the same for all. If the state allows people of means to dress better than those who are poor, it will also allow them to provide themselves either individually or collectively with such education and such opportunities of culture as may suit them best. Unless the American people come to care less and less for the things of the spirit, it cannot be otherwise than that those who have means will combine in associations of one sort or another in which they can secure intellectual advantages not open to all."

When we admit that the proprietary form of library is of the era of chivalry, of regal seclusion, of jealous regard for property rights, of the tie of church and state, we confess that this is not its golden age. Is it then to die or is it merely at the wrong end of the arc which the social pendulum makes in a period of years? It thrives only where there is a large population of wealth, as in Boston and Philadelphia, or one of high culture, as in Providence, under the shade of Brown University. Even so favored, its fortunes fluctuate with changing tastes and shifting centers of residential fashion. A large endowment will be its only security in periods of inefficient administration and unattractive interior or surroundings.

Of public libraries Mr. Swift writes: "With all the restrictions and hampering elements confronting them, they are fortunately in the main currents—they profit by public criticism and even by abuse. Competition urges them forward, however slowly, and they have the necessary and wholesome stimulation of responsibility to the general opinion." On the other hand, it may be said that it is often more difficult to arouse a public library board out of lethargy because public officials entrenched in a non-salaried position are re-elected from force of habit. The trustees of a proprietary library are intimately known to a large proportion of the shareholders, and social pressure becomes almost as effective and much more expeditious than the ballot.

The public library pay-roll is, on the whole, more the home of social derelicts than is that of its rival. This is partly due to the prevalent idea that public office, of a literary nature at least, is a reward to the aged and a solace for the unfortunate, and to the fact that the class interested in proprietary libraries encounters fewer persons in pressing need of employment.

The firmer tenure of office in the semi-private library tends to hold the efficient librarian. The public librarian in a contentious city is ever looking for a safer berth. Civil service for the protection of expert civic servants would do much to relieve good librarians from worry, but in the choice of heads of libraries so much of personality is demanded in addition to administrative and technical ability that rigid civil service could not be looked upon as an unmixed blessing. To quote Mr. Swift again: "The proprietary librarian fortunately is not called upon to assume the complicated rôle of a high-class janitor, caterer, and department store manager; he may still walk in the fear of God and not of a board of aldermen, loving, knowing and cherishing his books, courteous and helpful to his constituents. I am glad that he still holds his gentle sway in our midst, though my vision tells me that the weariness and solitudes of our own contact with a more real life is the nobler task because it is not along the primrose path."

In the past many proprietary libraries have been turned over to become the foundations of public libraries. Either too feeble to survive, or willing to foster the rising tide of popular culture, they have contributed much to the new democracy. The moth that dies in giving birth to another generation can make no greater sacrifice than some of these old and historic institutions have made. The fruits of noble industry and thrift, the results of civic pride and self-denial, have thus after years of toil been offered to the new library. If social progress upward is only at the expense of man's suffering and labor, our broader education is built firmly on the contributions of early

merchants, clergymen, and other men of wisdom and influence who a century ago created proprietary libraries in America.

The privileges once allowed only within proprietary doors are now extended with almost equal freedom to frequenters of the town library. The more aristocratic institution cannot in our day claim greater luxury of equipment, finer architecture, or more expensive books. The more evident advantages of the proprietary library are passing away. The more subtle attractions, still manifest but hard to describe, must be nurtured with zealous care by the proprietary librarian, and upon his success in this field of effort will depend the survival of the institutions now under his sway.

Franklin has described how he brought together fifty persons, mostly young tradesmen, who gave forty shillings each and agreed to pay ten shillings per annum for a library. With a liberality characteristic of Franklin's influence, the library was to be free for reference, and indeed the first benefactor, a London mercer, called it a "public library." In the published histories of the New York Society library, the Redwood library, and Quincy's History of the Boston Athenaeum, the first steps toward the successful organization of a proprietary library are made evident. In "A book for all readers" Ainsworth R. Spofford described the founding of such a library: "A canvass should be made from house to house, with a short prospectus or agreement drawn up, pledging the subscribers to give a certain sum toward the foundation of a library. If a few residents with large property can be induced to head the list with liberal subscriptions it will aid much in securing confidence in the success of the movement, and inducing others to subscribe. No contributions, however small, should fail to be welcomed, since they stand for a wider interest in the object. After a thorough canvass of the residents of the place, a meeting of those subscribing should be called, and a statement put before them of the amount subscribed. Then an executive committee, say of

three or five members, should be chosen to take charge of the enterprise. This committee should appoint a chairman, a secretary, and a treasurer, the latter to receive and disburse the funds subscribed. The chairman should call and preside at meetings of the committee of which the secretary should record the proceedings in a book kept for the purpose."

A proprietary library is founded upon an issue of shares of stock, the institution thus becoming a corporation. The owners of shares have entire control of the property, exercising every function of administration not expressly delegated by the corporation's by-laws to the trustees. It often happens, then, that the trustees reply with truth to a request for favors that they have no authority to grant such favors, since all power rests in the proprietors. Usually, however, so great is the desire of the owners of a literary institution to advance scholarship that they authorize the trustees to grant privileges to distinguished strangers and to serious students who wish to make limited use of the library.

In the case of the New York Society library the ownership of a share does not bring exemption from annual dues unless these dues have been commuted. Of about 725 shares now owned the great majority are unassessed. In the Boston Library Society the dues must be paid, whether books are taken out or not. This provision would seem to discourage the perpetual ownership of a share by a family some of whose generations may not care for books. Possibly as a result of these provisions the value of such shares is usually low—fifty dollars or under. At the Boston Athenaeum the share gives an indisputable right to use the library, a fee being charged only to those shareholders who wish to take books from the building. A share may be held without payments if the owner does not care to take books out, but merely reads in the building, or holds the share because he prizes it for its associations. Athenaeum shares, with a par value of \$300.00, have almost

always been sold in the market above par. The New York Society library and the Providence Athenaeum have successfully introduced temporary subscribers. While this brings a ready income and benefits the poorer students and writers, it would seem to discourage ownership of shares and the cultivation of a proper pride in being a part of the institution. The Society library, so fully described by Dr. Keep, attracts an increasing proportion of annual subscribers, while the shareholders are less numerous than of old.

To some extent these varieties of policy may, in successful proprietary libraries, be justified by local conditions; but it would be well to make a study of each plan of control as a first step toward a more intelligent understanding of the effect of each system, even if it did not lead to a more uniform regulation of the use of shares. These libraries are passing through a period of trial, not alone from competition, but from changing environment. To survive they must adjust themselves to the conditions of the new century. But after all this is no unusual task. Every institution, the school, the church, the government, the supreme court itself, must in some measure conform to the thought and feeling of the time. If this be the only test necessary to continued usefulness in the community the proprietary library need have no serious fear for the future.

At the Narragansett Pier Conference Mrs. Stone urged that the browsing habit, so dear to essayist and poet, is fostered by the sheltering walls of the shareholders' library. The public library, quick to seize for its readers every attractive feature of its ancient rival, has come to see the value of open shelves and quiet alcoves. The alcove, so universal architecturally in the older type, has, in spite of its waste of space, been adopted in the newer buildings of the better class, as at Brookline in Massachusetts. There one finds secluded corners for the perusal of books, beautiful walls, and book cases in

natural colors of wood, all to entice the dreamer as well as the searcher for knowledge.

The proprietary library has influenced profoundly the development of the free library, and shareholders, while loving such stateliness and quiet as will comport with ancient folios, must nevertheless feel the efficiency of the neighboring city library, and they will wish to see some of its best features adopted by their own institutions.

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VI

THE FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY

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In the modern conception of society the place of a given institution is considered from a totally different point of view than that of the earlier philosophers who elaborated schemes of social life. The broadening and deepening of social science have brought with them, or perhaps are brought about by, the development of a social consciousness, and later a social conscience. The subject ceases to be one of intellectual speculation only, and requires a knowledge of individual psychology and of social psychology.

In such a broadening and deepening, the place and relationships of every social institution acquire new values, new significance, and new uses. The prison becomes a school for the development of character, the reformatory a vocational school, the state itself a stimulative rather than a purely administrative power. The conception of no social institution has shown more rapid development than has that of public education. The duty of the state to teach each child, or to insist that each child be taught, the rudimentary three R's as the equipment with which each individual may do what he wills, or what his opportunities allow, has long been accepted in most civilized countries. But the vision of this duty has enlarged to a degree well-nigh inconceivable to the men of even a century ago. Here in America we recognize the right of every child, not only to an elementary education, but to secondary, college, and university education, all at the cost of the state. Already in many states vocational training is taking its place in the same group. The theory of the leading educators of the day will soon be the practice every-

where, and the right of every child to a training for some definite occupation will become a part of the rich dower of rights that belongs to the American child of today.

The addition of extension work, of lectures, of music, of training in the drama, of training in the very play of children—all these expand and enrich from day to day the common idea of what public education includes. It would seem that there is no subject so unexpected, even to the point of absurdity, as to fail of acceptance in some educational scheme. Each must be put on trial for its life, and by its fruits are its values known.

Two generations ago the public library took its place as part of the plan of public education, with important if restricted functions. It was to supplement the school by giving to those who were no longer under its care the material for further education. In the leanest days of the public library there was never so narrow a conception as that the range of subjects included in its collection should be confined to those dealt with in school or even in university. But the wider inclusion was regarded almost wholly from the intellectual standpoint, and the printed page dealing with subjects beyond the scope of elementary and secondary schools was addressed primarily to the man of the rank of a college graduate. There was still a feeling, if not a theory, that science, whether political, physical, social, or other, was beyond the ken of the ordinary man. The conservation of knowledge lingered in the minds of those responsible for the library as a necessary function long after they had accepted the newer conception of the dissemination of knowledge as the main purpose of the library. "The keeper of printed books" could not become without a struggle the man who reported with pride the enormous use of books that means the wearing out in the service of millions of volumes a year. The difficulties arising from this double attitude of mind are not yet solved, and it is quite probable that they never will be. The man who loves books loves their bodies as well as their souls, and will never

learn to keep a calm mind when he sees those bodies abused, as abused they will be in the process of learning their right use. But the modern librarian has it clear in mind that the book that is never used is worthless. It is a dynamo with more or less latent power, according to its individual rating, but that power is idle and so useless, until the connection is made by the touch of a human hand and the glance of a human eye. Then if the connection is "good," the current will circulate through a human brain and start machinery that in time may move the world.

The conception of the library as supplementary to the school widened naturally and imperceptibly to include the idea that it is also complementary, and the growth of work in close co-operation with the schools has been prominent in the library history of the last twenty years. It is impossible always to draw the line between the two types of use, when the user is a school child. The book read for a school composition seems distinctly complementary and the fairy tale the child chooses for recreation time seems distinctly supplementary, but if the first happens to be the life-story of Abraham Lincoln, giving the boy who reads it a new ideal of public service, if the fairy tale seizes on the girl's imagination and she makes it the basis for the play she submits for the school competition—who shall say that the uses were rightly named at first sight? For the boy or girl still young enough to be kept to the children's room it seems little worth while to attempt to distinguish uses. What the child reads belongs to his education in the broadest sense of that term, however it may be classified.

But another broadening has taken place that is of infinitely more importance, one that reaches down to the picture books in the children's room and the stories told there, and up to the most difficult volume of philosophy, even to the pictures on the walls. The record of human deeds, the reproduction of human thought and imagination—whether the printed page of words, the page of musical notes, or the reproduction of line and color

in picture or design—all these are now held to be the heritage of anyone who can use them, and the function of the public library is to make that use possible.

The technical methods of making all this material available are dealt with in detail in other chapters of this series. They have the same importance in the main work of the library that the mechanics of printing has in the making of the book. These are necessary in order to make the connection between the sleeping power of the printed page and the waiting mind and spirit of the reader. Like any other means, they become dangerous only as they are made an end, and so the sense of proportion lost.

The spirit of the library, however, is of far more importance than its technical methods, and that spirit must of necessity be one of hope and of anticipation if the place of the library is such as these last paragraphs describe. The way of nature is to sow a thousand, even a million, seeds for one plant that will bear fruit. Scientific management can forestall and plan so that waste is almost entirely eliminated in manufactures guided by human hands, but the path of development of human personality is nearer the way of nature than of man. Most of the information acquired by any human being remains unused, most of the impulses to mental and spiritual effort are inhibited early in their existence, most of the stimuli to advancement die without response, most of the ideas formed get little beyond the embryonic stage, most of the ideals glimpsed are never grasped. But because a given impulse dies, a given piece of information is forgotten, a given idea never comes to maturity, there is no reason to drop back to inertia. If one of a thousand impulses leads to right action, one of five hundred ideas becomes a guiding principle, one of a hundred bits of information remains as a usable tool, and if the individual has the power of synthesis of a normal human being, then the effort as a whole has not been in vain.

The public library offers to all the material for building human life so far as that material can come from human records. A right use of the material thus offered would make any individual in the community a wiser, better, bigger personality—whether man, woman, or child.

The passive offering of opportunity is, however, not enough for the institution that is part of the great whole of public education. It is not enough, either, that it should give to each what he desires. Each must be called, stimulated, even enticed, to go one step farther than his unaided desire would lead him. Each must get what he needs as well as what he wishes. That this should be fully true for every individual would indeed mean the life study of at least one wise man for each other person, and any library has but a handful of people to deal with thousands. This limitation is inherent also in the more formal education of the school, and should be no cause for discouragement in either case. The constant care of two highly developed men may make a John Stuart Mill, but few doubt that a more ordinary childhood would have made Mill himself a finer and bigger personality, and that his mind would have found itself in even the stupid curriculum of the most conventional school of his day. Between an education like that given to Mill and the education of a school without the vitality of the current of modern thought, lies the happy middle way of wisely directed education that gives to every child the spur to further development and the zest for the acquisition and the use of knowledge. Here the public library takes its place beside and beyond the school and the university, making available the oldest where the oldest has been fit to survive, the newest where the newest promises such fitness.

Here the recreative and the purely imaginative find place side by side with the tale of human accomplishment and the story of human thought. All of the man, all of the woman, all of the child can find food here as it is needed. The picture and

the music score are added to the archives and the Greek philosophers, the novel is added to the scientific treatise, the detective story has its place as well as the religious commentary. Hard is it indeed to exclude the worthless, even sometimes hard to exclude the morally unwholesome, since human judgment may be at fault as to either. But the proportion of disputable books on the shelves of the modern public library is so small that in considering the larger aspects of the library's work that handful of books is a negligible quantity. The dynamic value of the library as a whole is beyond calculation.

That the public library is needed in every community as an integral part of public education is the fundamental belief of those guiding the modern public library movement. Within the library walls can be collected and arranged, in a way impossible to any individual and more than impossible to the vast majority, the stored wisdom of the ages, ready to advance the man of today. He has but to ask, to seek even vaguely, to find himself standing like a giant on the shoulders of the men who have gone before. Whatever his intellectual, physical, spiritual, or social limitations, there is something in the library to help him take the next step in his upward progress. Opportunity is spelled in letters of gold over the door of every free public library, for him who has the eyes to see.

It is natural that with such a conception of the public library as a necessary part of public education, the support of public libraries by the community, as public schools are supported, should seem the logical thing. Almost every social institution, however, that eventually becomes a matter of public support, has been at first the beneficiary of private initiative. As there are many endowed free schools, so there are many endowed free libraries, but the tendency with both is to make no distinction as to type or use between these and publicly supported institutions. Eventually undoubtedly all will have public support, and the endowed libraries will be distinguished from the

libraries supported by municipality or state only for historic purposes.

The methods of support are, however, worthy of consideration. The clear types are as follows:

- a) Libraries supported by endowment alone.
- b) Libraries supported partly by endowment and partly by ~~the~~ *d*), or *e*).
- c) Libraries supported by special tax or a designated portion of the regular taxes.
- d) Libraries supported by appropriation of municipal, county, or state legislative body.
- e) Libraries supported by school boards.

The tendency is unquestionably to *b*) and *c*). The method named under *e*) might seem a logical one, since library and school stand side by side in their work for education, but the methods of work and the administrative problems of the two differ so widely that a separation is generally considered advisable. The state library commissions have done much to unify methods of support, and the facts of the methods prevailing in each state are obtainable from them.

The action of the public library on the community and the reaction of the community on the library have followed each other in such swift succession that it is impossible to tell where one ends and the other begins. But this means only that the development of the public library has been the natural one of a social institution, and that it has become so vital a part of the progress of today that it is an impossibility to picture that progress continuing at the same pace without its aid. To annihilate the public library of a given community would mean to lessen the power of teacher and child, professional man and business man, school-girl and housewife. It has become integral in the sense that it can not be torn away without leaving the community mutilated. To touch upon its value in the assimilation of our foreign-born population, on the aid it offers the "practical

man" in his endeavor to keep pace with the rapid changes in industry, on the stimulation to the staff of the public schools offered by its continual help—to touch upon these is but to put in a high light here and there. The whole work of the library is as broad as the interests of the human beings of its community, as deep as the possibilities that lie in any one of the personalities within its reach, as high as the aspirations of the most ardent — dreamer of dreams within sound of its call.

VII

THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY

GILBERT O. WARD
Cleveland Public Library

Present position.—Libraries in high schools are not new, but a widespread change in teaching methods in recent years has brought them into increased importance. This change has called upon the pupil to do work in the laboratory instead of watching demonstrations by a teacher, and to do collateral and supplementary reading in preparing for recitations instead of depending more or less exclusively upon prescribed textbooks. In proportion as the change has affected individual schools, especially in the departments of English and history, the library work of the students has been increased.

Public libraries have long served high-school teachers and students in their increasing demands with varying degrees of mutual satisfaction. But schools in which library work has become highly developed have found the ordinary forms of public-library service inadequate to the new needs; and although in many cases, for one reason or another, it will doubtless continue to be advisable or expedient for an outside library to act as substitute for a library in the school building, it is nevertheless increasingly recognized that, in the words of a state superintendent of public instruction, "No really good high school is possible without at least a fair library equipment."¹ This equipment may be administered by the school or by the public library. In the very small school it may mean a few picked books bought or borrowed by the school, kept in a classroom, and cared for by a teacher. But in schools large

¹ R. J. Aley, *Books and high-school pupils*. (In *National Education Association Proceedings*, 1909.)

enough for their departments to be differentiated, it implies a well-equipped, adequate room with several thousand volumes, and a trained librarian devoting full time to library work.

The present chapter is written with special regard to the latter type of library and with emphasis on those features of practice which distinguish high-school from other library work.

Function.—In its relations to the school, the high-school library corresponds in a general way to the college library rather than to the public library. Its first purpose is educational; its readers are chiefly or solely teachers and students. It differs from the normal-school library in the lack of professional aim and in the greater immaturity of its student readers. Its general functions are to supply books for class work and for cultural reading, and to impart a working knowledge of the use of books and libraries. Some specific duties are: co-operating with teachers in preparing and supervising class library work, guiding students' reading, preserving school ana, and acting as agent between public library and high school.

The first purpose of the library is for reference and reading; the occasional practice of unloading superfluous or undesirable students from classrooms upon the library makes the librarian's task of discipline much harder, hinders the library's legitimate work, and is wholly bad.

Room.—The library should be in an accessible, central situation, away from all noise.

In size it should be proportionate to the size of the school. There is no formula to express this proportion, but it has been found in two actual cases that a school with an enrolment of about 1,400 often sends 60 or 65 pupils to the library for library work, for a full-time single period. Both of these schools, one technical and the other academic, are situated in a large city with excellent public-library facilities.

The equipment required is of much the same kind as that in a public library of equal size. Shelving should be of the wall

type as far as possible, to permit of easy supervision. Tables accommodating not more than six or eight readers are preferable to those of larger size and should be broad enough for comfortable reference work. Important items of equipment which should not be overlooked are noiseless floor covering, closet room for supplies and new books, librarian's locker, wash* basin with running water, magazine rack, vertical file, bulletin boards, and typewriter with card-cataloging attachment. A glass show case is useful for exhibition purposes.

Library funds.—The high-school library may derive its support from one or several of a number of sources. In many states, the law provides for the establishment or aid of school libraries. In the most progressive cities which administer their high-school libraries according to modern ideas there is an annual appropriation by the city. In any high school, the library should be represented in the budget on the same footing as other departments and the appropriation granted by the school board should be on this basis. When the public library contributes, its share is likely to take the shape of a quota for books; in such cases it also usually pays the salary of the librarian. In starting a new library, or in purchasing pictures, statuary, or other equipment which is ornamental rather than essential, it may be undesirable or impossible to obtain or utilize a regular appropriation. In such cases money may be raised from voluntary contributions, proceeds of entertainments, fines, etc. The plan, however, of relying regularly on such resources, although it may stimulate a sense of proprietorship in the school library, discriminates in favor of wealthy student bodies, is unfavorable to steady and consistent growth, and, by making a distinction between the position of the library and that of other departments, invites neglect from an indifferent school board. It is no more naturally appropriate for the high-school library to depend on such means than it is for the high-school laboratory or for a public library to be so dependent.

To insure continuous, consistently high efficiency, the high-school library, like any other active library, requires, whatever the source of its income, a regular definite appropriation available for spending as needed. When the support of a high-school library is to be shared between school board and library board, a matter for consideration in planning the division of expense is whether the school board is willing or able to furnish a regular, readily available income for books.

Book selection.—High-school students range in age from fourteen to eighteen years. First-year students will read many of the books read by the students of upper grammar grades; fourth-year students can use many of the books suitable for a college Freshman. Books for student use must therefore be chosen, not only with reference to their general suitability for high-school use, but with particular regard to the different ages of students.

Among books used for reference, many excellent standard works, scholarly textbooks, works of literary criticism and the like, some of which find their way into high-school book-lists and textbook bibliographies, are too detailed or difficult for high-school use. Among books for general reading, much fiction, travel, and biography, most poetry, and almost all essays require for their appreciation a mental background which even Seniors in high school can rarely possess.

Teachers' recommendations are often of great help in selecting books for special reference and study, but of much less help in choosing books for general reading. They should be welcomed, but must sometimes be followed with discrimination.

Reference books.—Many of the general reference books found in a well-equipped public library are useful in high-school work. Particular mention may be made of encyclopedias, unabridged dictionary, atlas, biographical dictionaries, newspaper almanacs, yearbooks, books of quotations, collections of prose and poetry, debaters' handbooks, etc.

Some important types of books of a more special nature are textbooks (especially in the sciences and useful arts), historical sourcebooks, biographies of literary or historical persons, popular works on the manners and customs of important periods, readers, illustrated popular or semi-popular works of many kinds, well-edited editions of English classics studied, translations of foreign classics adaptable to high-school use, government publications (e.g., the farmers' bulletins for agriculture and domestic science), and college and technical-school catalogs.

Books for special reference and study should be limited rather closely to the curriculum.

General reading.—Fiction in the high-school library is useful in inducing the reading habit, in encouraging better reading, and for general inspiration. It must be carefully selected with deference to the normal tastes and capacity of the ordinary high-school student. It should be wholesome and should have literary value.

Generally speaking, it is found that students, especially the younger ones, prefer plot to style, action to analysis, broad humor to subtle humor, romantic sentiment to humdrum experience, and the familiar to the foreign. Thus they prefer Sherlock Holmes to Marius the Epicurean, Treasure Island to Romola, Tom Sawyer to Cranford, To Have and to Hold to Joseph Vance, and The Varmint to Tom Brown at Rugby.

For inducing the reading habit, books must be direct in appeal, clear in style, and not too long. For more advanced reading, much of the tested and better popular fiction and many standard novels and classics can be used, including novels with historical backgrounds. When possible, at least one copy of a classic should be chosen in an attractive illustrated edition. The problem novel, the sex or highly colored romantic novel, the conventional school story, and the machine-made novel of

any sort are for differing but obvious reasons undesirable in the high-school library.

Biography and travel offer a convenient trail away from the exclusive pursuit of fiction. As in the case of fiction, it is necessary to consider the nature of a book's appeal, and how much mental background in the way of historical or other reading a book will need for its appreciation. Poetry in general requires to be "pushed" by a librarian or teacher who herself loves it, and should be presented in as attractive a form as possible. Comprehensive, general compilations, and works of individual poets, complete in one volume, are useful for reference, but are likely to be fine in print, heavy to handle, bulky, and unattractive. In many cases, there are attractive editions of "selected works" or of single longer poems which are much more agreeable to read, and often are quite adequate for any probable reference use.

Books of little literary value which should be represented for other reasons are accurate, up-to-date, well-illustrated works (not textbooks) of popular science and the useful arts, including books on amateur work of different kinds.

Younger students in general will enjoy many of the books which are read by the older children in the children's room of a public library.

Magazines.—As in the case of books, magazines are selected principally either to provide material for use in class work or for general information and recreation. Under the first head are included magazines on current events, domestic art, domestic science, and fine arts; under the second, the better general magazines and magazines of popular science.

Magazines of both kinds are useful as an aid in preserving order when students have finished their assigned work and are looking for something to do before the end of the hour. They are also valuable in schools where students come from non-reading homes as "bait" to attract students into the reading

habit. Their use must be watched somewhat in order that they may not be read to the neglect of lessons.

Magazine indexes are needed under the same circumstances as in any other library, with this difference: When the public library is better equipped with files of magazines, a magazine index in the high-school library is useful in noting references and making lists to be looked up later in the public library, and in borrowing material from the latter. High-school libraries which cannot afford to subscribe to a cumulative magazine index may be able to supply the lack in part by procuring back numbers from the public library.

Pictures and clippings.—Pictures are useful in illustrating topics discussed in class, for bulletin-board display, and for exhibit purposes. A collection may include portraits of authors and historic characters; pictures of places, of buildings, of events of historic or literary interest; pictures illustrating mythology, geography, industry, flowers; reproductions of works of art; specimens of design and ornament, house interiors, fashion designs, etc. They may be cheap prints, clippings from magazines, or plates from some expensive work such as Foord's Decorative flower studies, which has been cut up to make it more available. A satisfactory way of handling such material is to mount it on cardboard of uniform size, about 13½ inches by 17 inches, assign a subject-heading to each, and file the pictures vertically in alphabetical order, in covered boxes.

Useful material on current events, local history, and school happenings is preserved in the form of clippings, which are satisfactorily handled by filing them in large envelopes arranged, like pictures, alphabetically by subject-headings.

Classification, cataloging, etc.—In progressive libraries administered by boards of education and therefore not obliged for the sake of economy or expedience to conform to public-library practice, the following are some changes in the Dewey decimal system of classification as commonly applied in public

libraries which have proved desirable and practicable: Greek and Roman antiquities have been put with History; Language with Literature; Constitutional History with Political History; and Travel with History. English and American poets are frequently thrown into one alphabet under English Poetry; plays are similarly treated under English Drama; and essays and prose miscellany under English Essays. The result of such changes has been to increase greatly the use of the books affected.

The desirability of modifying the classification depends much on the relations of the high-school library to the public library. If the former is a branch of the latter, or a large proportion of its collection consists of library books, differences in classification lead to difficulties in shelving, in transferring from one collection to the other, and in keeping shelf-list records, etc.; and the student has to learn two systems of book arrangement—one for the public and one for the school library.

In small libraries not administered by a trained librarian, it is advisable to follow a simplified form of the Dewey classification, such as that noted in Miss Wilson's Books for high schools.

The cataloging needs to be simple, but to contain more analytics than in the ordinary public library.

In shelving, some schools have found it practicable and convenient to make no distinction between circulating and reference books. The latter are distinguished merely by some mark on the back and by the absence of a book pocket.

Books for supplementary reading.—High schools usually have a number of sets of textbooks, readers, etc., which are used for supplementary reading. In large high schools these may amount to hundreds or even thousands of volumes and require some attention as to the best method of handling.

When sets are small and few, it is possible to treat them as ordinary duplicate copies. When they are many and large, the

simplest plan is to arrange them in alphabetical order by authors and titles in some less desirable part of the library, with a shelf label to each set.

There are various ways of charging sets. They may have been prepared for the shelves by simply stamping them with the school stamp, and be charged by debiting so many copies to the teacher on a memorandum when needed for class use, or by making a temporary book card when a single copy is lent. If sets have been accessioned, the librarian may keep a list of copies lent by accession numbers. The most business-like way is to prepare each copy for circulation as any other book is prepared, omitting the shelf number on the back. Books needed in numbers may then be charged in sets to teachers, or individually to students, as preferred. By the latter plan, the time of the teacher is saved and she is relieved of the responsibility and annoyance of keeping a separate record and of recovering lost books, and the student is still held accountable for loss or damage.

Loan work. Charging system.—The charging system must in its operation be reliable, flexible, speedy, and simple. It must be flexible because books must be lent for periods of varying length. Books for required reading or study will go out for an hour, overnight, or for two or three days; books for general reading, for perhaps a couple of weeks; books and sets for classroom or the teachers' use, for irregular or indefinite periods or for the school term. Teachers may not be limited to a definite number of books. The outside public may have to be accommodated. Speed is required because many books must be charged and discharged in the busy intervals of changing classes. The system must be simple in order to minimize the number of mistakes in working under pressure. Local conditions will cause one or another of the qualifications mentioned to appear of particular importance; for instance, the larger the school, the more important becomes the matter of speed.

In part possibly because of local conditions, there is so much diversity of practice among high-school libraries in their charging systems that it is not possible to speak of any usage as standard. The systems of which the leading features are described below may, however, be noted as having proved practicable under local conditions.

In the high-school branch of the public library in one large city, a book pocket and book card only are used. In charging, the date of issue is stamped on both, and the borrower's name and high-school room number are added to the latter. The book card is filed in the charging tray by date of issue. This library is open to, but not greatly used by, the public.

In a girls' high school, with an approximate enrolment of 2,500 pupils, the essentials are the book card and time cards of three colors, brown, pink, and blue, which are employed according to whether a book is lent for a study period, for overnight, or for two weeks, and which bear printed information to this effect. In charging books for overnight or for a single study period, the reader's name and room number are entered upon the book card, and a pink or a brown time card is slipped into the book pocket. No dating is done. If a book is needed for two or more study periods, the librarian writes "5th" or "6th" on the brown card before slipping it into the pocket. When a book goes out for two weeks, the date due is added to a blue time card and to the book card. Of 250 books issued on a typical day, 125 require no stamping. Circulation is counted each period. The library is not open to the public.

In the systems described above, the absence of a reader's card makes it impossible to keep a check on the number of books issued to a reader. It is sometimes convenient, however, to know what or how many books a reader has out, and in schools where this is felt to be important a reader's card is required. In the high-school branches of the public library in one large city, a file of readers' cards is kept adjacent to the

file of book cards. Book number is entered upon reader's card, and date and reader's number upon book card. Due date is stamped on both and upon the book's dating slip. At overcrowded moments, the date is entered on the dating slip and on one card; both cards are fastened together with an elastic band and laid aside for completing the charge at leisure. This system is felt to be sufficiently rapid in handling loans at crowded times, but of course the time taken in finishing charges makes the total time twice as great as in a one-card system. The enrolment of the high schools in this city ranges from about 420 to 1,760; the book collections from 1,720 to 7,300 volumes; the average daily circulation in a busy month from 32 to 132 books. Attempts which have been made in some schools to have teachers and students carry their cards have not resulted satisfactorily.

The library in one high school of 260 pupils uses the Browne charging system without modification for books drawn for general use. For books lent for one period, the borrower's name is written beneath the last charge on the book card, and the book card is filed in a common pocket with other one-period cards. This library circulates about 75 books a day and is open to the public.

Guidance of reading.—The greatest privilege and pleasure which comes to the high-school librarian is that of personally influencing the reading of some particular boy or girl. In large schools with busy libraries this is too seldom possible, but something can be done in helping clubs to arrange programs and find material for the writing of papers. Aids to reading are lists of various kinds printed or duplicated for distribution or posted on bulletin boards, or published in the school paper.

The most serious work of this sort occurs when the library co-operates with teachers in the work of vocational guidance. To do this the library must have all the information available about local industries; books and articles giving reliable

information on miscellaneous occupations and the qualifications required to succeed in them and describing various sides of the world's work; suggestive biography; some of the better "inspirational" books; college and technical-school catalogs; and books on going to college. Much useful information may be preserved in the form of clippings. All this must be made available by lists and perhaps by a special index. The scattering material on the subject of vocations may be "featured" by collecting it on special shelves or reading racks, keeping books for the teacher separate from those for the student. The success of the library in this work depends greatly on the education, wisdom, and personality of the librarian.

A very necessary but less inspiring work of guidance is the supervision of the pupils in their regular library work. In the public library, a patron is free to read what he chooses. The high-school librarian, however, is often required to see that her patrons who have definite assignments of reading attend to their tasks. When permits are used, a satisfactory way to accomplish this is to make their checking an excuse to visit each student in turn, observing what he is reading, comparing it with any notes which teachers have added to permits, questioning cases of suspiciously irrelevant reading, and making suggestions as necessary.

Discipline.—The principal things which affect discipline in the high-school library are the tone of the school, the character of the librarian, the system under which the students use the library, the physical conditions, and the presence or absence of interesting general reading.

If the general order of the school is good, equally good order is to be expected in the library, although of an informal kind. It is right to insist that work be done with a minimum of conversation.

If the librarian shows by her manner that she thoroughly understands her work, she gains the respect which is accorded

to competent persons. Here, too, enters the quality of tact. When students are restless and talkative, it is often because they are having difficulty with their work, or sometimes because of simple thoughtlessness. In any case, it is always safe to assume that advice or friendly suggestion is required rather than a reprimand. For this reason and also to avoid interrupting the work of the room, it is better to speak to offenders privately than to call them to order by rapping with a pencil or speaking across the room. With serious, wilful offenders, the librarian may employ the resource of debarment from the library, and, in schools where self-government is practiced, of placing the matter before the self-government board. The librarian has of course the right to expect unhesitating support from the school office if an appeal to the office should be necessary.

Overcrowding is a source of disorder which may be avoided by arranging with teachers as to the number of pupils that may be sent to the library from each classroom or study-hall during any period. Confusion is avoided if students may enter and leave the library between periods only.

Some mechanical details which contribute to good order are the arrangement of furniture so as to make easy the quick exit and entrance of numbers; a clear view from the desk for easier supervision; keeping the room in physical order, including the restoration of books to their places; enough duplicate copies of books; the conspicuous numbering of cases and adequate labeling of shelves so as to facilitate the quick disposal of a crowd at the desk; and care and system in the checking up of permits.

Interesting general reading keeps students occupied when they have finished their assigned work and are waiting for the bell.

Permits.—In large schools it is usually necessary to keep track of pupils who for any purpose leave their rooms. This is often done by means of permits. Permits are usually printed

forms filled in with the name of the student, initialed by the teacher, and specifying the time for which leave is granted. The librarian requires a permit from each student, countersigns it, and returns it to the room from which the pupil came, to be checked by the teacher's record.

A simpler plan which has proved satisfactory in one school is for each student to have a permanent library permit, which is kept on file in his study-hall or room. This permit he brings with him to the library and hands to the librarian. The librarian collects the permits and returns them to the study-hall teacher, who compares them with his records and re-files. This plan presupposes that students ordinarily visit the library for a full period.

Instruction in the use of books.—Instruction in the use of books and the library is given primarily for its immediate usefulness in school work, and secondarily as a preparation for the use of the college library or of the public library. Its importance to intending teachers who cannot go to normal school or college may also be noted.

Book instruction varies in different schools from a single informal talk on the use of a library to (rarely) a course of twenty or thirty lessons, with written papers and credit given. Results worth while are had from courses of six or eight lessons, when time can be saved by having papers written outside of class.

Topics generally recognized as legitimate matter for instruction are the care of books, the significance of the several printed parts of a book, such as the title-page with its various items, copyright date, preface, table of contents, and index; the card catalog; the classification and arrangement of books in libraries; selected reference books, including dictionary and encyclopedia; and magazine indexes.

The topics taught, the order of their teaching, and the proportion of time allotted to a topic vary according to the time

available, the amount of previously received instruction if any, and the peculiar necessities of the situation. The instruction has often to include much that is very elementary because of the general lack of library instruction in the elementary schools. The instruction differs from that given in a normal school in that it stops with the personal needs of the student, and so in general disregards such subjects as library methods, book selection, children's literature, etc., but in schools which maintain training classes for teachers these subjects may properly receive attention.

The instruction may be an informal talk, a lecture, or a recitation. It is made concrete by the exhibition and examination of specimen books, sets of catalog cards, sample sheets of dictionaries, old numbers of periodical indexes, etc. It should always include a written or other practical test graded and credited as regular school work.

It frequently is convenient to make the library instruction part of the English course, and to have it take place at the regular hour of the English recitation. In some schools the instruction is spread through four years, in others it is concentrated in the first year. Considering the generally elementary nature of the subject-matter, and the limited time usually available for the whole course, it seems preferable to give the instruction early.

To get good results, library classes should not exceed in size the ordinary English or history class. Library instruction to classes of fifty or more is to be deprecated. Work should always receive credit.

Relations with the public library.—A close understanding between the public library and the high-school library is desirable in order to avoid competition and to ascertain what co-operation is possible and advisable.

One kind of co-operation which is mutually profitable is in book-buying. Here, the high school may leave to the public

library the purchase of many expensive but not essential works, many periodical sets, books seldom needed, and books of ephemeral interest in general. On the other hand, the public library can leave to the high school the purchase of many textbooks, sets for supplementary reading, and other special books of little interest outside the school.

The public library can aid the school library by lending it books, magazines, and other material to supplement its resources. It can lend copies of a book to the school to meet a temporary heavy demand. When the circulation of a book is regulated from the school library on such occasions, it is possible to give much better service with an equal number of copies.

For reference work beyond its scope, the high-school library has to send students to the public library. In such cases, the school librarian can notify the public librarian of approaching general demands. The high-school librarian can advertise the public library by posting its lists and notices, and circulating its folders, lists, and other printed matter. She can actively promote membership in the public library. One thorough-going method of doing this is to take a census of the entering class, ascertain who are not patrons of the public library, and then do personal missionary work where necessary to supplement other methods. Useful general methods are talks to students in connection with the work of library instruction, the distribution of applications for membership in the public library, etc.

In high schools too small for a regular librarian, the public library may give advice and help. Thus in California, the county libraries not only lend books to high-school libraries, but stand ready to give assistance in cataloging, book selection, debate reference work, etc. For small communities with little money to spend, the library board and school board may co-operate in employing one full-time librarian for both libraries,

High-school branches of public libraries.—In a number of cities, high-school libraries are very satisfactorily operated as branches of the public library, which shares the expense of them with the board of education. In one state, New Jersey, the state education department permits and recommends the administration of school libraries by public libraries.

This division of responsibility and expense varies in different places. The school furnishes room, light, and possibly ordinary janitor service. It may furnish certain kinds of books such as reference works or contribute a definite amount for the public library to spend for books; the school board may appoint the librarian on the recommendation of the public librarian, and the public library supply the books, etc. A natural arrangement in book-buying is for the school to purchase all sets of books used for supplementary reading and books permanently assigned to classrooms, such as dictionaries. Aside from these exceptions, the arrangement of having the public library supply circulating books and the school reference books is likely to be hard to carry out, as it is often difficult to foresee which use a book will have.

The advantage of having the public library administer the high-school library is that as the public library usually finds the librarian it insures close co-operation with the public library and a librarian with some degree of technical skill and breadth of education. The public library benefits by having a representative in close touch with the school; and the school benefits for the converse reason. This is especially the fact when the librarian attends both faculty meetings and public-library staff meetings.

The chief disadvantage of administration by the public library is that the public library can rarely afford to pay the high-school teacher's salary which the responsibility of the position justifies, and which is necessary to insure a librarian of the necessary training and experience. The plan of having

the school board appoint the librarian on the recommendation of the public librarian seems to offer a satisfactory solution for this difficulty, if the librarian is appointed on the footing of a high-school teacher with the corresponding salary.

The fact that a high-school library is administered as a branch of the public library does not imply or necessitate its use by the outside public. As will be indicated in the following paragraphs, the question of public use is decided from other considerations.

High-school libraries as public libraries.—It is sometimes necessary or advisable for the high-school library to serve the community as public library. This may be the case, for instance, with township high schools or high schools in small towns. In localities where there is no public library and where the demands neither of the public nor of the school are likely to develop to such an extent as to interfere with each other, such an arrangement may prove satisfactory as a permanent measure. In large or growing schools and communities, however, the two kinds of work tend eventually to conflict to the detriment of one or both. For this reason, the public library which plans to do work with the public in a high-school branch should consider the possibility of having ultimately to sacrifice that work in part or entirely as school demands develop. The peculiar problem which confronts a double-duty high-school library lies in doing justice to two different kinds of work.

One of the specific difficulties of the double-duty library is that, as at present planned, the high-school library, while possibly most conveniently situated for the school, is likely to be inconvenient for public access and to be dependent in its hours of opening on school hours. When planned for double duty, the high-school library should have an entrance from the outside and should be designed for heating and lighting independently of the rest of the building when the school is closed. A location on the ground floor, close to the street, is desirable.

from the viewpoint of public use, but is not necessarily the most quiet, pleasant, and convenient location for the use of the school.

Simultaneous use by school and public during school hours presents several difficulties. Some libraries are too small even for school use, and even ordinarily adequate school libraries are liable to overcrowded periods. In building new schools this trouble can of course be obviated by planning the library big enough to begin with. Size, however, is only one side of the question. When as many as thirty or occasionally even half that number of students visit the library during a period, the time of one librarian is easily filled with routine work such as checking up permits, charging, discharging, and reserving books, looking up reference questions, supervising students' reading, and keeping the room in physical order, to say nothing of incidentals such as business with teachers, and other details peculiar to the school side of the work. Under such circumstances the librarian has little time or thought for work with the outside public. Problems of order too are possible when patrons of one kind are answerable for their good behavior to the school office, and other patrons are not. These difficulties can be overcome by excluding the public from the library during school hours: but it should be remembered that the librarian who is busy as above described also requires time for general work such as cataloging, special reference work, and planning for library instruction, tasks which cannot be carried on subject to constant interruption.

Book selection presents a dilemma. The high-school library guides the literary taste of its readers largely by excluding inferior or unsuitable literature. The public library on the other hand has to meet more varied requirements in its readers and in the selection of fiction especially must often pursue a policy which is incompatible with the more rigid educational standard of the high-school library.

Stress has purposely been laid upon the difficulties in the way of utilizing the high-school library for public work. These difficulties are least serious in small libraries but increase as libraries become larger. In fairly large city high schools the libraries of which have their full, legitimate school use, the experience and opinion of high-school librarians is that work with the public is impracticable. In the libraries of comparatively small schools, it is still to be remembered that even less than in a public library are the number of users and amount of circulation a dependable index of the library's activity and consequently of the librarian's leisure for work with the outside public. The problem in projecting a high-school library for public work is not of getting free books for the school nor free quarters for the public library. It is first to understand the different characters of high-school and public-library work and then to foresee the possibilities in both school and community. The next step is to consider whether the proposition be possible, expedient, or desirable, and, if so, whether it should be adopted as a temporary or as a permanent measure. The decision on these questions will naturally affect the location, size, and arrangement of the library.

The librarian.—A new high-school librarian may, among numerous possibilities, find herself in charge of a room with some unbroken boxes of books to be combined and erected into a library, or she may succeed to a thoroughly organized plant, or to a library which has outgrown the powers of the teachers' committee which assembled it.

Many states have laws or regulations relating to school libraries or affecting them by providing for their establishment or up-keep, regulating their administration, or prescribing what books they may buy. In many states, a library commission or the state education department lends books or gives advice or service to school libraries. It is therefore one duty

of the newly appointed high-school librarian to ascertain her legal duties and privileges.

In new schools, in addition to the mechanical routine of organizing, rules must be adopted for the guidance of pupils and teachers. Sometimes the library must be used while it is being organized. In reorganizing old libraries, lost books must be recovered, easy-going library habits gently reformed, teachers' confidence regained, and discipline restored among the student users of the library.

Upon the librarian rests the responsibility for the efficient use and good order of the library, and the proper condition of its records. Upon her may devolve most of the duty of book selection, especially in those parts lying outside the field of any department. In an increasing number of schools she is called upon to give instruction in the use of books. She must co-operate with teachers and preserve toward all of them a cordial but impartial attitude.

From this résumé of the duties of the high-school librarian, it will be seen that she is called on to exercise the all-round ability of the first-rate librarian of a small library and to possess a number of the qualities for teaching and leading young people which belong to a good high-school teacher. She should have a library-school training, some general library experience, and the equivalent of a high-school teacher's education in college or in university. Tact, agreeable presence, interest in young people and in the work for its own sake, and ability to co-operate with others are among the important personal qualifications.

Just how large a school should be to warrant a full-time librarian is hard to say. In one case, an academic high school with an enrolment of 400 students, and a teaching staff of 19, keeps a librarian busy 42 hours a week. A technical high school in the same city, with an enrolment of 1,400, employs a librarian 44 hours a week, an assistant 22 hours, and a page 10 hours. In neither of these schools does the librarian do cataloging, and

in the second a part of the instruction in the use of books is carried on by the English department. Neither library does work with the outside public. The city in which both are situated is well supplied with library facilities.

In schools too small or too poor to have a regular, full-time librarian, there are two permissible expedients, either a teacher, preferably of English or history, with a part of her time regularly scheduled for library work, or a library assistant shared with the public library. In the former case, the teacher should arrange, if possible, to take a course in library economy at a summer library school, or, if this be not possible, to arrange for a course of all-round practice work (including experience in the children's room) in a good public library. If a public-library assistant is chosen, she will need to know something of high schools in general, and to acquaint herself very thoroughly with the organization, curriculum, and teaching methods of that particular high school. Either teacher or librarian should thoroughly acquaint herself with the literature relating to high-school libraries, and make a special study of the books and methods of special importance in library work with high-school students.

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VIII

SPECIAL LIBRARIES

R. H. JOHNSTON

Bureau of Railway Economics Library, Washington

Libraries have long since abandoned the idea that it was possible to collect all printed material in a single library. Distribution of the labor of collecting is a feature which is being more and more developed, particularly among libraries in the large cities. The best example is probably afforded by the relation between the Library of Congress and the various department libraries in Washington. A movement analogous to that which in university work has established various colleges of arts, science, medicine, law, practical science, around a central university, is finding a parallel in university library work and in the public library world, the former expressing itself in department libraries, the latter, as exemplified in the New York public library, in divisions devoted to such subjects as economics and sociology, technology, Semitics, etc.

That this specialization does not yet reach that made necessary by the ever-widening yet ever-intensified demands of modern business is demonstrated by the springing up—and more particularly in the large cities with extensive library facilities furnished by the city government—of scores of small collections in association with financial houses, banking institutions, engineering firms, business enterprises, public utilities, and corporations. The New York public library itself has found the necessity for a municipal library which is not a branch, as the term is ordinarily understood, but a special collection associated with the city government in the way in which these business libraries are with business firms.

The need which it is found necessary to meet thus does not arise altogether from a lack of the material afforded by books

and periodicals in these larger collections. It does in part arise from the inability of the organization of a large library successfully to cope with the pamphlet, circular, and so-called ephemeral literature of the day. The railroad man, the banker, the business man, who would naturally send this class of material to an interested library, must be solicited by the large library, and to be able to solicit, the library must keep close track of what is being done, not only in all fields of endeavor, but also in all countries, and here the ordinary library aids absolutely fail.

In short, it is not a collection of books however full that will adequately meet the demands of those who have found it necessary to establish these special libraries; there is necessary some medium either of method or of man fully to utilize the collections in large libraries and be definitely responsible for the care of the most recent information in some one of the particular fields of inquiry or endeavor. What is needed is a collection organized and planned for a certain definite end; a collection of books and pamphlets that may be utilized as a tool in the busy workaday world. Such a collection might not in the open market produce any great sum. It is to be valued by its power to help and inspire the busy man. W. P. Cutter, librarian of the Library of Engineering Societies in New York City, has made the statement:

I consider a special library as one that serves people who are doing things, and a reference library one which serves people who are thinking things. The former are not thinking about doing things, they are already doing them. I think that applies also to people who are serving as legislators, who are making laws; to sociologists, who are making attempts to handle crime and other sociological questions.

The distinction which makes a special library has been expressed by M. S. Dudgeon, secretary of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, in the following words:

A reference library is an academic institution for the scholar. A special library is a utilitarian establishment calculated to serve the worker too busy to take time for scholarly investigation.

However much we may deprecate from the altitude of idealism, allowing other people "to do our thinking," it yet remains that in the world of labor as organized today the executive is the man who uses the work and the brains of others in obtaining results. The executive supplies the material and moral means for achievement, but he employs superintendents, foremen, clerks and assistants, stenographers, messengers and office boys, so that the vital forces of the man at the head may be conserved for the main work in hand. It therefore follows that if in the manufacture of paper the executive requires information as to the use of alum in sizing he does not expect to have to wade through the literature of sizing. The definite information required must be made available to him at once. It is true that the reference librarian in a large library may find this information if the library is equipped with the proper material, but only after a search which will, according to his special training, take a longer or a shorter time. In the special library the information is produced because the material has to be there and the note has to be made of the item because the library is organized for that special purpose. As C. C. Williamson, librarian of the municipal reference library of New York, has said:

The special library, as we understand the term, is an efficient, up-to-date, reasonably complete collection of the literature of a particular subject, including not only books but clippings, pamphlets, articles, reports, etc., all so completely indexed and classified that the latest and best data are available without the difficulties and delays that are more or less inevitable in a large general library.

This special library movement, however, is comparatively recent in its growth. There were of course prior to 1909 a considerable number of libraries now characterized as "special."

Among these might be mentioned those connected with the firm of Harvey Fisk, Arthur D. Little, Inc., Stone & Webster, and the Insurance Library Association of Boston; all of these are hoary with age as compared with the great majority of libraries now comprised in the membership of the Special Libraries Association. In a paper read in May, 1913, St. Elmo Lewis, a member of the Efficiency Society and the author of *The New Gospel of Efficiency*, made this remarkable statement:

Five years ago if you had proposed to some manufacturers that they establish a library in which would be filed all of the data, experience, and knowledge of all of the organization, they would have probably made some reflections upon the sanity of the gentleman who had proposed the idea, and as for establishing a library of books, magazines, and publications for finding out what other people were thinking about their problems, they would probably have suggested that old, hackneyed, and moth-eaten excuse which has hampered business for thousands of years—"Our business is different."

But there suddenly loomed up libraries such as those of the American Brass Company, the Studebaker Corporation, the United Gas Improvement Company, and the New York Merchants Association, in the East, and the A. L. Drummond Company, the A. W. Shaw Company, and H. M. Byllesby & Company, in the West, to name but a few, and this sudden accession to the special libraries of Boston and New York led to the discussion at a veranda conference at the meeting of the American Library Association at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, June, 1909, of the project to form a Special Libraries Association. Before the end of that conference John Cotton Dana was able to announce that 45 libraries of sixteen different interests connected with business or commercial houses, boards of trade, and municipal and legislative reference bureaus had conferred and drawn up a tentative form of organization.

As a result of this meeting there was held in the assembly room of the Merchants Association of New York City on

November 5, 1909, the first meeting of the Special Libraries Association. About forty librarians were present. The paragraph "Object" in its constitution reads:

The object of this Association is to promote the interests of the commercial, industrial, technical, civic, municipal, and legislative reference libraries, the special departments of public libraries, universities, welfare associations, and business organizations.

The second meeting was held in connection with the American Library Association conference at Mackinac Island, Michigan, in July, 1910. At this meeting affiliation with the American Library Association was formally requested and the session was characterized by the inauguration of a considerable number of projects. For the benefit of those who were unable to attend the Mackinac conference a midwinter session was arranged for at Boston, November 11, 1910. The question of affiliation with the American Library Association was taken up by the American Library Association council in Chicago, January 6, 1911, and the committee appointed reported as follows:

On general principles the committee would, as a rule, prefer the formation of a section of the American Library Association, rather than of a separate organization, when it is a question of one or the other.

But in this particular instance the committee is inclined to think that the formation of the Special Libraries Association has been justified by results; that the separate organization has been able to accomplish more in its own behalf than it could have done as a section of the American Library Association.

Further, that its affiliation would tend to attract to the annual conference of the American Library Association a number of very desirable members who otherwise might not attend these conferences at all. That such members, bringing with them, as they would, a point of view new to most members of the American Library Association, could hardly fail to impart fresh interest to the discussion of familiar topics, and to suggest fresh topics worthy of investigation.

On the other hand, since there is necessarily much common ground in the field occupied by the two associations, the younger of the two ought to profit largely by the experience of members of the senior organization.

Therefore, the committee recommends granting the petition of the Special Libraries Association. The committee believes that the advantages enumerated more than offset the admitted drawback of increasing the complexity of future American Library Association programs, and of the rather vague scope of the Special Libraries Association, a vagueness however which will doubtless be remedied as time goes on.

At the Pasadena conference of the American Library Association in May, 1911, the report of the committee was adopted. The Association has held annual meetings since 1910. Almost immediately upon organization the Association undertook the publication of a monthly periodical styled *Special Libraries*. The first number appeared in January, 1910, and at this writing (December, 1914) the Magazine has completed its fifth volume. This periodical is a mine of information regarding individual special libraries and is replete with lists on subjects of vital and present-day interest. An index to the contents of the first three volumes was prepared, and an index now in course of preparation is designed to include the two subsequent volumes.

A large part of the work of the Association is accomplished through committees. Such committees have been appointed for libraries of associated classes such as agricultural libraries, business libraries, commercial associations, insurance libraries, legislative and municipal reference libraries, public utility libraries, sociological libraries, technological libraries. Others have been formed for special subjects of large interest to the members of the Association. Among these is the Committee on Clippings. A most interesting report¹ was rendered by the committee at the Kaaterskill conference, at the conclusion

¹ Printed in *Special Libraries*, 4: 157-61 (Sept.-Oct. 1913).

of an address by the president of the Luce Clipping Bureau. Committees have reported on several fields of special indexing as a result of which the useful indexes of the H. W. Wilson Company have been expanded. The newspaper index committee was appointed in 1910 and the work proposed by it has been almost entirely met by the publication of the *New York Times Index*. The *Public Affairs Index*, after getting its ideas into active service with the Indiana Bureau of Legislative Information as a center, has now graduated into the Public Affairs Information Service of the H. W. Wilson Company. As a result of committee and individual work the libraries of Boston and its vicinity have been co-ordinated into the Boston Co-operative Information Bureau. Such matters as special training, assistance in the organization of new libraries, the problem of classification as affecting special libraries, are among the subjects now under discussion by committees of the Association.

One of the best examples of the kind of library engaged in special library work is the legislative reference library. Dr. Herbert Putnam, appearing before the committees of Congress having under consideration the establishment of a legislative reference bureau in the Library of Congress to assist the federal government, after describing what he terms "library work proper," proceeds to explain the additional service that would be expected of the bureau, and states:

A legislative reference bureau goes further. It undertakes not merely to classify and to catalog, but to draw off from a general collection the literature—that is, the data—bearing upon a particular legislature project. It indexes, extracts, compiles. It acquires extra copies of society publications and periodicals and breaks these up for the sake of the articles pertinent to a particular subject. It clips from newspapers; and it classifies the extracts, the compilations, the articles and the clippings in scrapbook, or portfolio, or vertical file, in such a way that all material relating to that topic is kept together and can

be drawn forth at a moment's notice. To printed literature it often adds written memoranda as to fact and even opinion as to merit, which it secures by correspondence with experts.

The first work of this kind was initiated at the New York State library when Melvil Dewey in 1890 appointed a legislative reference librarian and secured funds for the digest of the current legislation in all the states of the Union. The work by which this bureau is best known is its *Annual Index and Digest of Legislation*. In 1902 Wisconsin established a similar bureau with an annual appropriation of \$1,500. This bureau, which is under the control of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, the president of the State University, the secretary of the State Historical Society, the state superintendent of public instruction, and two other members appointed by the governor for a term of five years each, is so widely known that an attempt to describe its operations would be but to repeat what M. S. Dudgeon said in the *Yale Review* for November, 1907. The success of Wisconsin led to the establishment of similar bureaus during 1907 in connection with the legislatures of Indiana, Michigan, North and South Dakota, and in 1909 in Texas, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, followed in 1910 by Ohio and Kansas, in 1911 by Nebraska, in 1913 by Illinois and California, and in 1914 by Virginia. Alabama in 1907 added to the duties of the Department of Archives and History "the bringing together and arranging for ready consultation a reference collection of material for the use of members and others on subjects of public interest and importance to the people of the state," and Massachusetts and Nebraska also have appropriations for legislative reference work. The University of Washington has also established a bureau of legislative reference for the benefit of the legislators which, while similar in purpose to those mentioned above, is only indirectly sustained by the funds of the legislature.

The demonstration of the value of these legislative reference bureaus led to the creation in Baltimore in 1906 of a similar

library for the use of the city government. There are now similar departments in Philadelphia, St. Louis, Milwaukee, Chicago, Minneapolis, Newark, New Jersey, Oakland, and in 1913 Cincinnati, Portland, Oregon, and New York City were added. An effort is now being made in Washington, D.C., for a municipal reference library to be maintained in connection with the Washington public library, and the trustees of the Boston public library with the present mayor are at work upon a similar project in Boston. An excellent résumé of the work of the municipal reference library is given by Samuel H. Ranck in the *Library Journal* for August, 1909.

Legislative and municipal reference libraries are, of course, the most general libraries within the scope of the Special Libraries Association. They touch more of the smaller libraries than even the general reference library. To them the smaller libraries apply, as do the legislators, to discover what principles have been established and what facts can be adduced.

Among the libraries more limited in their scope may be mentioned those associated with banking and financial firms. Effective libraries are associated with Harvey Fisk & Sons, F. J. Lisman & Company, Kountze Brothers, National City Bank, American Bankers Association, and the Old Colony Trust Company.

Such libraries have demonstrated their value as a business asset. The bank or financial house may never have seen the railroad or industrial undertaking which it is nevertheless ready to finance. Why? The library associated with the business has furnished it with all the information on which it bases its judgment. When Baltimore introduced the cable system to replace the old horse cars, Denver had already experimented with and demonstrated the greater efficiency of electric traction, but there was then no municipal reference library in Baltimore. Andrew Carnegie once said that his concern had "made many mistakes by neglecting one single rule, 'never to undertake

anything new until your managers have had an opportunity to examine everything that has been done throughout the world in that department.' Neglect of that has cost us many hundreds of thousands of dollars."

Still another important financial interest, that of insurance, has found the value of special libraries, and examples may be cited of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, the Association of Life Insurance Presidents, the Insurance Library Association of Boston, the Insurance Society of New York, the Prudential Life Insurance Company, and the Fidelity Life Insurance Company.

In manufacturing, business libraries are maintained by the General Electric Company, the Dodge Manufacturing Company, the B. F. Goodrich Company, the Firestone Tire & Rubber Company, the United Drug Company of Boston, the New Jersey Zinc Company, the New York Ship-Building Company, the Crane Company, and the National Cash Register Company.

Among public utilities may be mentioned the American Telephone & Telegraph Company, the New England Telephone & Telegraph Company, the Stone & Webster organization, the United Gas Improvement Company, the Boston Consolidated Gas Company, the Public Service Corporation of New Jersey, the Commonwealth Edison Company, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company, the Philadelphia Electric Company, and the Detroit United Railways Company. Associated with this class of library must also be mentioned the libraries maintained by the Massachusetts Public Service Commission and the New York Public Service Commission for the First District.

Technical and scientific libraries are represented by the Arthur D. Little, Inc., library, the Solvay Process library, the library of the Chemists Club of New York, the Society of Western Engineers library, the library of the American Society of Civil Engineers, and the library of Engineering Societies.

There might also be listed the business libraries of William Filene Sons and Marshall Field & Co., the Social Service library, the Investors Agency library, the Philadelphia Commercial Museum library, the American Institute of Social Service library, and the Bureau of Railway Economics library, but we cannot here do more than suggest the wide range of subjects represented by the membership of the Special Libraries Association.

The Association also includes in its membership many of the libraries connected with the various departments of the federal government at Washington.

It is not to be expected that with the miscellaneous interests which are thus shown to be associated in the special library field there will be found many features common to them all. The very term "special" was adopted in lieu of something better. The word "library" must be made to include manuscript reports, models, plates, photographs, as well as the trade catalogs, city directories, and telephone books which while present in a great many libraries do not assume the importance they attain in these small collections. It is not always in books that up-to-date and current information is to be found. Not always is it to be found in the periodical literature of the day. The Wisconsin legislative reference bureau began as a clipping bureau, but not even the daily news will always bring the required information up to date. Among its various indexes the Wisconsin bureau keeps an index to experts. Often the most used reference book in a special library is the telephone directory, which is used to communicate with the people who know things.

When it comes to methods there is still less uniformity to be found. It is perhaps safe to state that only an occasional special library maintains an accession book; few keep a shelf-list; and probably none of the few use the old-fashioned sheet. At least one special library has no catalog. The most common method

to be found employed among special libraries is that of filing a large part of its material in vertical units. This method has been found most useful in accomplishing the prime object of the special library, which is to bring together in closest physical relation material bearing on the questions of the business involved.

Such subjects, therefore, as classification, cataloging, scientific bibliography, are treated as subordinate to the main object in view. Too often the special librarian, trained in his specialty but untrained in library methods, makes the mistake of heralding as a new discovery the application of some method well known in the library world which meets the needs of his own work. Greater uniformity may be expected with the progress of years and the discussions held at the meetings of the Association and through the increased contact, due to affiliation with the American Library Association, of the special with the general librarian.

This points to the most essential difference in the administration of the special library as compared with that of the general library. The difference lies in the librarian. The library world treasures the memory of Ainsworth R. Spofford. His minute acquaintance with the contents of the Library of Congress is a matter of common knowledge. Those of us who had the honor to serve under him can vouch for this with many instances. It is quite beyond belief, however, that anyone however gifted could today be credited with a similar acquaintance with the present collection in the Library of Congress of two and a half million volumes. With this growth there was needed the strong executive, the man who could marshal men, with knowledge similar to that of Spofford within greater limits as to subject, into an organization and evolve a library primarily intended solely for the use of Congress into a national library extending its helpful aid to the libraries of the country. But the special library by its limitation to a comparatively restricted

scope is making it possible for a return to the old-fashioned librarian who knew the insides of his books. In fact the writer can testify to at least one day's experience in which the special librarian answered call after call in person and by telephone on subjects involving large sums of money without rising from her desk. Books may be purchased and cataloged, but if the librarian of the special library does not take an intelligent active interest in the problems to which his special collection relates, if he does not read and study many and know the contents of more of the books in his charge, the library will be dead.

The question whether any special training can be afforded for librarians engaged in the conduct of these business libraries is one which is still before the Association. In some ways, however, the use of library training in special libraries is analogous to the work of the public accountant in the large corporation. A general training is doubtless of service, but we shall quote from the testimony of an official whose statement must be given deep consideration as to the relation between general training in accountancy and that needed by a particular business:

Concerns of sufficient size to do so will permanently employ men who are, or who can become, experts both on the business and on its accounting and can take the responsibility connected therewith. To such concerns the services of public accountants for these purposes are not only inadequate but are superfluous and a waste of money. And yet large corporations are constantly being solicited by public accountants to be allowed to revise their accounting systems, frequently with much glittering argument as to scientific management, efficiency engineering, and the like.¹

Many of the most successful special librarians founded and conducted libraries which adequately served the particular business establishment with which they were connected to

¹ Charles G. Dubois, comptroller of American Telephone and Telegraph Company.

whom Poole, Cutter, and Dewey were unknown. It might be, however, that with a library training organization would have been better, service would have been more expeditious, and it is to this age of investigating and testing time-honored methods that the Special Libraries Association has now come.

That special libraries are, is sufficient proof of their necessity. They will become more and more a factor in the solving of business, commercial, and industrial problems as well as civic and legislative difficulties. They are no longer an experiment. The office library will beyond doubt become as much a part of the service of a great office building as the elevators and heating plant. But with a wider knowledge of the efforts being made in the various industries there will doubtless ensue, with an increase in the number of interests represented, a decrease in the number of special libraries engaged in the same field within any one city or district. Much material is now duplicated in, let us take for example, financial libraries which would not be retained if it were known that ready access could be had to the material elsewhere. The large city library might very properly in a downtown branch have a file of the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* which would obviate the necessity on the part of a dozen financial houses of maintaining any save the current issues. Much more than co-operation in collection of material can be accomplished between special and general libraries. While some difficulties arise by reason of the fact that a few special libraries are maintained primarily for the use of a particular business establishment or for the members of an association, the main difficulty in the way of closer co-operation lies in the fact that none are fully aware of what the others are doing. The public library can occasionally ask assistance from the small library and the special library will in turn make requisition on the large library for information required on subjects out of its scope.

Much may also be attained through closer co-ordination between the special libraries themselves. The Bureau of Railway Economics library should, when its work extends into the street and electric railway fields, apply to the libraries engaged in these latter fields. The work of the financial library dovetails into that of the insurance, the banking, and the industrial libraries, as they in turn cross over into the former field. Methods of co-operation and co-ordination which will prevent the duplication of labor are yet to be evolved by the Special Libraries Association for its membership.

Is it too much to expect that the general library, the library sustained by state or city funds, may eventually be transformed into a collection of special libraries centered round a common library? Are the difficulties of organization so great as to make it impossible for the individual in charge of a certain small field in a general library to have that same liberty of action in the acquisition of material and in its treatment that the special librarian now has? Can state committees and city boards be induced to see that a larger proportion of their appropriations should be made for salaries than now obtains between funds for salaries and for books? When this shall have been accomplished the function of the special library will have ceased.

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LISTS OF SPECIAL LIBRARIES

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X
THE LIBRARY BUILDING

W. R. EASTMAN
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Object	Departments
Location	Book room
Economy	Reading-rooms
Plans	Delivery room
General conditions	Administration
Books	Assembly hall
Required capacity	Public conveniences
Shelf	Light
Size	Heat
Material	Stairs
Pattern	Shape of building
Capacity	Square
Arrangement of cases	Oblong
Wall cases	Trefoil
Alcoves	T-form
Stack	Hollow square
Public access	Preparing for the architect
Radial lines	Bibliography
Open shelf room	

In the inception and progress of a library enterprise the provision of a building may properly be left for the last step. It is not the foundation but the crown of the enterprise, giving to it outward expression and permanence.

OBJECT

The first object to be secured by such a building is to furnish a place in which the books of a given library may be kept with all needed facilities for their ready and convenient use. It must

therefore be designed and built to meet conditions already existing, or at least clearly determined. A secondary object is to impress the eye and to offer attractions to the visitor. Many library buildings are also memorial in their purpose.

LOCATION

A library should be reasonably accessible to the body of its patrons. It belongs, however, with the residential rather than with the business section of a city. Its location should have regard for the poor as well as for the rich, for the young as well as for the old. It should be a little apart from the noise of the main street in a quieter place where land costs less and a broader lot can be secured. This last consideration is important because a library needs space within the building for good rooms on both sides and needs still more space outside the building to allow for ample side light. A broad front should be secured if possible.

A corner lot has advantages in well-lighted rooms.

A sharp-cornered, "flatiron" lot can sometimes be used to good purpose if there is ample open space around the building. Each one will require a separate study.

A lot sloping down to the rear or to one side offers a place for a very useful basement at the lower point. A lot sloping up from the front can be used only at a disadvantage.

Surroundings in the future as well as for the present must be considered.

ECONOMY

Economy should be carefully studied so that the money available may produce the best results. A very simple building may answer. Yet it must be substantial, not cheap. It must be a worthy building with nothing wasted; large enough, but not too large. The cost of future maintenance must be considered. Quite as important is economy of service. A building carelessly planned that requires the constant service of four

persons is extravagant and wasteful if better results can be obtained in a better building with less effort by the service of three. And there will be no relief from an extravagance of this sort because the additional and unnecessary salary will run on year after year.

Care must also be taken not to try to include too much in one building. A sum that would be ample for a good library may not be enough for the addition of a lecture hall, a museum, and several classrooms which, although very good in themselves, may not be in such constant use as to repay an outlay which can only be met by stinting the library. If the addition of these other features is in any way a detriment to the library, a true economy will leave them out. For \$5,000, or even for \$10,000, more than one good room on the main floor cannot be expected. But one large room will be far better than three small ones. For \$10,000 some rooms in the basement may be added.

PLANS

In preparing plans there are several units of measurement, such as the book, the shelf, the case, the table, the room, and the department; while the money in hand, the income expected, and the size, shape, and location of the chosen site are also essential elements in the calculation. All of these must be counted, measured, and considered in detail. The right building will be planned with due regard for all the conditions.

GENERAL CONDITIONS

There is one general condition, however, that is always and everywhere present—the fact that every public library must, by the very law of its being, be continually growing. Like a tree, if it does not put out new leaves every year, it is dead. Hence every library building must be so contrived as to suit a continual process of expansion.

The rule is to provide space within the walls for the estimated growth of twenty years and to take care that in after years expansion may be secured at the least possible cost of money and convenience.

BOOKS

The books must be counted. The additions of past years are known and plans for the future are being made. From these a certain rate of successive annual additions may be fixed. Experience shows that actual additions to a living library are invariably greater than those expected. Hence any estimate must carry a liberal margin. All additions, however, do not represent a permanent increase. When a library has been in operation for five years there will appear many worn-out, superseded, and neglected books and many which, for various reasons, are not worth keeping. The removal of these becomes imperative if the library is to be kept strong and fresh. The difference between additions and removals will thus determine the total remainder of books likely to require shelf room twenty years hence, and for that number the building must be planned.

REQUIRED CAPACITY

An estimate of the book capacity required must take account of each of the following items:

1. The present number of books.
2. The yearly addition of books.
3. The yearly loss and removal of books.
4. The proportion of books of a size larger than the average.
5. The proportion of empty spaces needed for immediate placing of new books in their order.
6. The proportion of empty spaces needed for convenient class arrangement, finding, and handling of books.

7. The proportion of shelves needed for special uses, such as new arrivals, books in process of preparation for use, books on exhibition or reserve, and for books and other material in the office and work rooms.

The difference between items 2 and 3 for twenty years added to the present number will furnish an estimate of the total number of volumes. The large requirement for oversized books and empty and special shelves suggested by items 4, 5, 6, and 7 cannot and need not be so closely reckoned, but may be reasonably covered by a general rule. The unoccupied margin of shelf space needed to cover these four items will be none too large if one-half is added to the estimated number of books. That is, a library of 5,000 books, which is expected to grow in twenty years to be 15,000, should plan for a building large enough to hold 22,500. If for any cause it is intended to limit the growth of the library to any fixed number, then that limit, with one-half added, will give the required book capacity of the building.

But we must take care to distinguish between full capacity and practical capacity. The full capacity of one foot of shelving is, on an average, in a public library, ten books. The practical capacity, under the rule given above, is a trifle less than seven books. We may therefore have a more simple and comprehensive rule if we say, *Determine the number of books to be expected and allow one foot of shelving for every seven books.* With this allowance every item will be provided for and the margin will be ample.

In some special libraries, where many of the books are large, it may be necessary to allow only six books, or even five, to the foot. Such cases are exceptional.

THE SHELF

Having determined the book capacity, it is necessary to know what space the given number of books will occupy in

proper arrangement. For this purpose we must study the shelf.

Size.—The common library shelf is a yard long, or a trifle less if three feet are measured from center to center of uprights. If the shelf is longer it is liable to bend under weight.

The standard shelf space is ten inches high and eight inches deep. This will receive all books of octavo size or less. Indeed the majority of books used for public circulation would stand in a lower space, but it is better to have some room to spare than to crowd out the oversized book too often. The line is drawn at the height of ten inches. For larger books a space of 12 inches by 12, or a still higher space, should be provided at the bottom of the case or in special cases.

Shelves of standard size should be placed in sections of seven shelves each so that the highest will be within easy reach. These sections placed side by side constitute a case, and cases may either be set against the wall or stand free on the open floor to hold books on each side.

Material.—Shelves may be of wood or of light steel. Wooden shelves vary greatly in appearance and cost. They can be made very cheaply of pine or, at a greater cost, of hard wood. When nicely made and finished oak shelving presents the best appearance.

Steel shelving, on account of its structural strength, is necessary in large book stacks. It takes a little less space than wood and is more open to the light and air. It must be obtained in fixed patterns from the makers and cannot be so readily fitted to special spaces or so easily altered as wood.

As between wood and steel, the polished wood is to be preferred for small libraries and for all parts of large libraries where special structural strength is not required. The cost of steel is of course greater.

The risk of fire will not be seriously affected by the material of the book shelves. A fire once fairly started will reach the

books when arranged on open iron shelves quite as surely as if on wood.

Pattern.—The manufactured shelves are usually made adjustable to allow for easy changes in the height of shelf space, and there are many ingenious devices for adjustment. In a reading-room this is a very necessary convenience, as it is in any other place where the occasion for such changes is likely to appear. But there are also many large collections in public circulating libraries in which the books are so nearly of uniform size that the need of changing a shelf is almost never known. In all such cases, and within limits carefully considered in each particular instance, fixed shelves will answer every purpose, give more strength, and save expense.

Capacity.—One foot of shelf space is long enough for ten books of average thickness to stand side by side. But for reasons already stated the practical capacity of each foot, under library conditions, is seven books. As each bookcase is seven shelves high, each running foot along the wall will provide for about 50 books, and each foot in a free standing floor case, having two sides, will answer for 100 books. These even numbers enable us readily to determine the length of cases needed for any given number of volumes. Thus for 1,200 books we shall need 12 feet in a floor case or 24 feet in one along the wall, and the length of shelving for the total requirements of a building can be quickly ascertained.

ARRANGEMENT OF CASES

Wall cases.—The best place in which to read or select a book is an open, square-cornered room with cases lining the walls. For a small library there is no difficulty in securing such a room. Even in a large library there will be some rooms like this. Occasionally a library is planned to cover the walls of one room and no more, with a distinct provision that when the shelves overflow, as they will, there shall be a storage place in

the basement to which the least worthy material shall frequently be sent. In such a library, once filled, whenever new books are added an equal number of inferior books must go out, and consequently the library garden is subjected to a persistent process of weeding and is fresher and every way the better for it. Then the books left behind are all worth while. It is a good rule to cling to the open room as long as possible.

Alcoves.—But with the rapid increase of books it is hard to find sufficient space, and when, in spite of every effort, the library passes beyond the mark of 5,000 books, free standing floor cases must be used. These floor cases, having books on both sides, add greatly to the book capacity. When placed at right angles to the wall at regular intervals of ten or twelve feet, they make up a system of alcoves which will carry almost three times the number of books which can be placed along the walls of the same room. Add to this another fact, that the sheltering wings of the alcove with a table in its center offer the choicest place for quiet study, and we cannot wonder that this arrangement was long considered the ideal one for the large and growing library. Elaborate alcove systems were planned and built. Most of our colleges adopted the plan, and the Peabody Library in Baltimore still shows five stories of alcoves surrounding its great cathedral hall.

The stack.—But libraries continued to grow. Books multiplied and floor space could not be found for more of these open alcoves. Tables were taken out and intermediate bookcases put in their place. It seemed more important to keep all the books together than to keep the readers, and these were accordingly banished to another room. It then became an object to put the largest number of books in the smallest possible space, leaving only the necessary passages for the attendants. This produced the book stack. Cases were set in parallel rows so close together that there was barely room to pass between. They were drawn away from the side walls so as to obtain better

light from frequent windows. They were extended toward the center of the room so as to use all available space. And then the floors were "stacked." That is, they were placed one above another in one compact, cagelike construction of steel resting on its own foundation and rising to three, five, seven, and even nine stories in height. One story is generally placed below the main floor in order that in the first three stories the approach may either be on a level or require but a single flight of stairs. A fourth story would then be level with the second-story of the building.

It is not unusual in large reference libraries to place the book stack immediately beneath the reading room, requiring the books to be brought up by lifts.

In a true "stack" the entire weight rests on the stack foundation, but in a small library an equivalent arrangement may be obtained by placing double-faced cases on the main floor of the book room and an equal number of cases in the basement immediately beneath, leaving a space between cases on the main floor and the ceiling in which a third tier of cases can be put when the increase of books requires additional room. In a two-story building the same process can be repeated on the second floor. Such an arrangement adapts itself to the growth of the library and has obvious advantages where the conditions permit.

Passages between cases should never be less than two and a half feet wide. The center aisle, if any, should be at least three feet wide. In making calculations for floor space it is most convenient to measure from the center of one row of cases to the center of the next. Thus, in the closest stack, the cases will stand in parallel lines, four feet apart between centers. In more open stacks, or in one in which wider shelves are used, there may be four and a half, five, or five and a half feet between centers.

Public access to shelves.—The importance of public access has led to changes in the form of stack arrangement, chiefly in two

respects: providing wider passages and direct lines of approach. To allow free passing, the aisles must be three and a half, or better, four feet wide. For direct approach, with due supervision, the cases are set on lines running back from the delivery desk so that light is obtained from the rear wall only.

Radial lines.—Bookcases are sometimes set on lines radiating from a point in or near the delivery desk. The advantages are: direct access to any given point with consequent saving of steps both by visitors and attendants, direct supervision from the desk, and ample light from windows in a semicircular outer wall. The disadvantages are: a waste of space in the intervals between the cases as they spread outward, the greater cost of building a curving wall or one with many angles, the impossibility of satisfactory enlargement to the rear, and the unequal width of passages at different points between the cases. Many ingenious devices have been used to reduce such difficulties to the minimum. But the unequal width of the passage remains and the narrowest point must always be nearest the center at the very place where the current of those who meet and pass is naturally the widest. The space between cases at this point should never be less than three feet. In the basement or on the floors above the first the radial arrangement presents no advantage.

The open shelf room.—A library may have so many books that it cannot afford space in which to allow the public to handle them all. In that case it may select a considerable number of books which are in most demand and place them in an "open-shelf" room. This may be entirely separate from the stack room, or it may be the main floor or some other special section of the stack. Some recent libraries are trying the plan of an open room just behind the delivery desk with cases along the walls, keeping a larger collection of books in reserve in a room immediately beneath which can be entered by a staircase for attendants only. Such an arrangement offers many obvious advantages of light, convenience, and supervision. A real serv-

ice is rendered by thus selecting and offering on open shelves the books which are most worth while.

DEPARTMENTS

The book room.—While every room in a library will have provision for books, there will be one place for the principal collection containing the great remainder which are not assigned to reading-rooms, office, or work rooms. This central place we call the book room, and in very many instances it will be a book stack. The required capacity of a book room will therefore be determined by deducting from the estimated total capacity of the building the number of volumes for which provision has been made elsewhere. This capacity should be settled in advance in order to produce an intelligent plan.

With this definite capacity in mind, the question of one or more stories of books can be decided and a proper distribution made showing the capacity of the main floor. Cases equal to this capacity should then be drawn to scale, placed at proper intervals, and grouped in the desired shape with such additions of tables, stairs, lifts, etc., as to present a complete room. At this point choice will be made between parallel and radial lines of cases, between public or restricted access, as to the location, size, and pattern of windows, and the use of the basement space immediately beneath.

But the exact proportions of the room will be subject to modification as other rooms are fitted to it and as the limitations of the building lot may require. The book room is the heart of the library with which every other feature must be in proper adjustment.

Reading-rooms.—At least two reading-rooms or reading spaces are desirable, one for adults and one, equally large, for children. In a large library these will be separate rooms. In a small library they may be in one room with a dividing line of low cases or a hand rail marking them off from the central

passage or from one another. The absence of partitions will add greatly to the largeness of effect which may be given to a comparatively small building and will at the same time, by the very publicity that is assured, tend to prevent disorderly conduct and make the work of supervision easier. Each reading-room will have bookcases on the walls and tables on the floor. Small tables for four or six readers each are preferred to long tables, on account of the greater degree of privacy and convenience of access. But long tables accommodate a larger number in a given space and are therefore indicated for small or narrow rooms. The ordinary library table is three feet wide and five or six feet long. A space five feet wide on every side of a reading-table should be kept open to allow for chairs and passing. Tables are sometimes, however, set close to the side walls. In this way a larger number of readers can be received in a given room, at the sacrifice of wall space for books. In such cases reference books are kept at one end or in an adjoining room.

The delivery room.—The delivery room is the open space or vestibule through which every visitor passes on his way to the several departments. It is between the reading-rooms and leads directly to the book room, so that both reading-rooms and books are to a certain degree under the supervision of the desk attendant. In this room are found the catalog and bulletins. Care must be taken to secure good natural light. When access to the books is not permitted it becomes a waiting-room and must be furnished accordingly.

Administration.—The librarian needs an office and a quiet place in which she or her assistants may work undisturbed. Such places will usually be found in the angles after the larger rooms of the library have been fitted together. A small board of trustees will find a convenient meeting-place in the librarian's office. A basement room is often convenient for work. A place should be provided for receiving and unpacking boxes.

Assembly hall.—An audience room may be quite desirable in a public library. There is a marked tendency among small libraries to place a hall of this sort in the basements where there appears to be abundant room for it without much additional expense. But such a room requires more height than an ordinary basement. This additional height is rather favored by the architect because it adds to the outside effect of the building. But when the main floor is raised there must be a longer flight of outside steps or an interior stairway, which is an inconvenience to everyone coming to the library. This stairway must also be shut in between partitions which tend to cramp every room on the main floor. Unless the hall is used with uncommon frequency the constant climbing of the stairs, the lost effect of the main floor, and the sacrifice of space beneath the book room needed for books are a large price to pay for it. On the other hand, if there were no interior stairway and no partitions, the two open reading-rooms with the passage between could be readily made into a hall on occasion by simply pushing back the tables and bringing in chairs. A good hall upon the second floor may be of great use in a community which will appreciate and use it.

Public conveniences.—Every library should provide for the personal comfort and convenience of members of its staff, and in a large library it may be found best to include cloak and toilet rooms for the use of the public. But a small library is not under obligation to supply these conveniences, which involve considerable expense both in their first cost and for needed care and supervision. A library should not be regarded as a public waiting-room.

LIGHT

Good light, both natural and artificial, should be secured as far as possible for every part of every room. Windows with clear glass should be frequent and extend well up toward the ceiling with square tops so as to light the remote parts of a room.

Light will not penetrate to advantage more than 30 feet. Ceilings and walls should be finished in colors which reflect rather than absorb light. In reading-rooms it is admissible to have high windows on the side or rear walls; that is, the sills may be seven or eight feet above the floor so as to allow an unbroken line of bookcases to pass beneath. But at the front such high windows, presenting a blank wall beneath, are an injury to the outside appearance. For inside rooms, especially in large buildings, interior courts may be introduced and overhead light must often be obtained from clerestory windows and skylights. The latter must be made secure against the weather. Windows that slide are more satisfactory than those which swing or turn on pivots.

In some recent buildings which require unusual capacity for storage the attempt to obtain natural light in the book stack has been frankly abandoned. The stack then becomes a vault without windows, depending on electric light by day as well as by night. The ventilation is also artificial. In this way a vast accumulation of books is compactly and securely housed and is at the same time easily accessible. The closed court of the Library of Congress and the enormous stack beneath the reading-room of the New York State Library at Albany are examples.

For artificial light incandescent electric lamps are better than gas, not only because they are safer and can be readily carried to any point by a wire, but also because the fumes of gas will taint the air and injure the books. Each room in use should have diffused light from above with smaller shaded lights on or directly above each table and section of shelving. Indirect lighting is well adapted to library rooms.

HEAT

Heat from hot-water pipes and radiators is the most satisfactory. If pipes are arranged behind the bookcases at any

point, great care must be taken to protect the latter from the risk of fire. Radiators will naturally be placed in front of the windows where the exposure to cold is greatest.

STAIRS

The location of stairways is a special problem for the architect. They must be so placed as not to interfere with the clear open entrance used by the chief patrons of the library. They must not be crowded into insufficient space. The rise and tread of each step must be so calculated as to make ascent easy for old and young. Spiral staircases are inconvenient and unsafe and should be avoided.

SHAPE OF BUILDING

Square.—A very small library may be accommodated in a square room with bookcases along the walls and one or two tables in the center. But as the number of patrons increases there will be danger of annoyance to readers by reason of others passing back and forth in front of the shelves.

Oblong.—A somewhat larger room with a front twice as long as the depth is a decided gain. One end of the room may then be reserved for readers, while the books chiefly wanted for circulation will be found on the other side and patrons entering at the center will go to right or left according as they wish to read or to borrow. In this way disturbance will be avoided. The library will have two departments.

Trefoil.—The next step is to add a third department at the rear, using it for books because it is central, while the two wings of the original room are two reading-rooms, one for adults and one for children. This gives us the trefoil rudimentary scheme upon which circulating libraries are commonly planned. While the library is small there is no need of any partition to separate the departments. The best effect and the best supervision are secured by one large room. A few columns may be used for

needed support of the roof or of the floor above. By filling out the angles between the book room and the reading-rooms place will be found for the librarian's office and cataloging room and perhaps for a small reference room or study. This will give a rectangular shape to the building.

T-form.—For a larger library of the same general form, but with larger rooms, partitions may become necessary. But in such a library there will be more assistants, so that each room will be independent of the others. In this case the limits of light will forbid the filling up of the open angles and the projection of the book room may continue for some distance to the rear.

Hollow square.—For a library still larger, instead of one extension to the rear there will be two, and, instead of going out from the center, one of the two may be joined to each of the extreme ends, one behind each reading-room, leaving an interior court at the center. Being sufficiently prolonged, they may be joined again across the back, resulting in a large square building on four sides of an inner court.

The New York Public Library has two such interior courts and the Library of Congress had formerly four interior courts.

PREPARING FOR THE ARCHITECT

1. Study the conditions and be sure of what you want.
2. Consult the state library commission or some experienced librarian.
3. Visit libraries similar to your own.
4. Draw, to scale if possible, an outline group of the rooms that seem desirable.
5. Having heard of several architects during your consultations and visits and having received overtures, perhaps, from more than one, choose one whose reputation and work strike you most favorably. Do not be influenced by importunity or favor.

You will want a man of good judgment, who is willing to listen and to take the library point of view; one who is not so ambitious for artistic success that he is willing to overlook library needs; one whom you can trust.

6. Before accepting any plan refer it to your library commission or to some good librarian for revision and find out, as nearly as you can, what it will cost. Then allow a margin of 10 to 12 per cent for expenses, furnishings, etc., not included in the contract. It will be little short of disaster, if, after you have begun to build, you find yourselves compelled to be cutting out here and there in order to bring the cost within the fixed limit or else to incur debt.

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The annual reports of municipal public library systems and of state library commissions often contain plans and pictures with descriptive notes of buildings. For plans of branch buildings under city conditions the reports of the New York Public Library, of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, and of the Brooklyn Public Library may be consulted to advantage.

The files of the "Library journal" and of "Public libraries" contain many plans and descriptions, with useful articles from librarians and architects on different phases of this subject. "Public libraries" for 1898, for December, 1901, and for the year 1902 are specially helpful. The Proceedings of the Narragansett Pier conference of the A. L. A. printed in the "Library journal," for 1906, contain an instructive symposium on the subject of library architecture.

XI

FURNITURE, FIXTURES AND EQUIPMENT

LINDA A. EASTMAN
Cleveland Public Library

The furnishing of a library building should be planned with the same care and attention to detail as the building itself. Each library presents its own problems in the adaptation of its entire working equipment to its individual needs.

A library in temporary quarters can be fitted up to do effective work with inexpensive furnishings which can be discarded or used in the storage and workrooms of a permanent building later. A local carpenter or cabinet worker can make shelving and a receiving-desk of pine; kitchen tables and chairs of good proportions can be bought unfinished in soft wood, the corners of the tables rounded, and all given a dull finish in a pleasing tone in harmony with the general color scheme, the whole resulting in an attractive library outfit at small cost.

The furniture for a new building should be planned with a view to its lasting qualities; a hard wood should be selected, and oak is usually the most satisfactory. Steel is being used more than formerly, not only for book-stacks, but for most other articles of library furniture. The various objections to metal furniture are clearly stated by Mr. Wyer in the article listed in the bibliography on p. 15, and due weight should be given to these objections when considering it; where it is used, if desk, table-tops, and filing-case slides are made of wood or battleship linoleum, and filing trays of wood in the metal cases, the objections on the score of chill and noise are greatly lessened.

It is well to have the furniture of the same wood and finish as the interior finishing or trim of the building itself. The

first step is to plan the lay-out. The easiest way for one not skilled in drafting to do this is probably to take a floor plan of the room to be furnished, and on this to place paper patterns of tables, desks, and all other articles of furniture, drawn to the same scale as the plan; these can be changed as to size, shape, arrangement, etc., until satisfactory decisions are made, and then transferred in drawing to the floor plan itself. If furniture is to be specially designed, have it done or approved by a good furniture designer; insistence should always be on the simplest lines, with perfect proportions in the designing, and on careful choice of materials and good workmanship in the making. For any considerable outfit of furniture, specifications and working drawings should be prepared, bids taken, and the contract let in much the same way as for the building itself. Architects usually advocate the inclusion of the shelving and all other fixed furniture in the general building contracts, and there are strong arguments in favor of this, though it is sometimes possible for one who has had sufficient experience in planning to secure better results in uniformity of materials and finish, more economically, by omitting all furniture from the architects' and builders' contracts, employing a good furniture designer for the drawings and specifications, and making separate contracts for it. The following points, more or less peculiar to library needs, should be included in the specifications:

All corners to be rounded.

All unnecessary grooves or projections which can catch and retain dust to be avoided.

All table-tops and large desk-tops to be core-built.

All file-cases and card-trays to be exact in inside measurements, to fit standard sizes of cards and sheets used by library.

The backs, ends, and under sides of all cases, seats, tables, and other fixtures which are to be placed in front of, over, or near radiators or heat pipes, to be covered with sheet

asbestos properly attached, with an air-space between asbestos and woodwork.

The under surfaces of table and desk-tops, etc., to be finished with as many coats as the upper surfaces, to prevent warping.

The bottoms of all pieces of movable furniture touching the floor to have metal glides of suitable size attached; pieces too heavy for use of metal glides to have strips of wood or heaviest cork carpet bradded to parts resting on floor, and waxed on under surface.

Samples of materials, including wood and hardware, and of finish to be used, to be submitted by the contractor for approval.

The suggestions which follow are made with the small or medium-sized library in mind, the problems of the large library being beyond the scope of a brief general chapter.

Book-shelves and stacks having been discussed in chap. x, "The library building," they are given only supplementary mention here.

Marble bases for wooden book-cases, delivery desk, and other heavy pieces of fixed furniture are desirable but expensive; tile is a cheaper substitute, and a facing of battleship linoleum offers a still simpler solution of a practical mop-splasher base. Open sanitary bases are best for all desks and other pieces for which they are feasible.

Bulletin boards are useful for so many purposes in all public rooms that there is little danger of planning too many; they may be set into paneling between doors, on pilasters, or in any wall space not covered by book-shelves. Cork carpet makes a good surface covering for bulletin boards, as it takes thumb-tacks easily and without marring, though a soft board covered with burlap will serve fairly well.

Arrangement.—In the placing of furniture there are various considerations to be kept in mind: the location of each piece in relation to its use, its proximity to other pieces, the light,

draughts, and finally the general design and balance of the contents of the room as a whole. Beauty in furnishings is quite as much a matter of line, proportion, spacing, and arrangement as it is of materials, workmanship, color, and finish.

Libraries so rapidly become over-crowded that it is important to have plenty of room for everything in the beginning, in order that the feeling of space and opportunity for growth may be enjoyed as long as possible. Tables should not be placed nearer than four feet to one another or to other articles of furniture; five or six feet is better. In open-shelf libraries, wider aisles are needed in stacks and in front of book-cases than in closed stacks. It is especially important to plan for enough space about the delivery desk and the fiction shelves, where the greatest congestion of people is likely to occur; distance between tables and in front of shelves in the children's room should also receive special consideration in relation to the size and shape of the room and location of the door. Where it is desirable to mark off aisle space, low book-cases placed with paneled backs to the aisle are suggested instead of railings, as they add to the book capacity while the suggestion of mere fencing is less apparent.

Entrance corridor.—If this is to be utilized for exhibition purposes, wall finish, picture moldings, and lighting should be planned with this in view. Glass exhibition cases with locks may be desired, and also perhaps screens; and the hinged leaf screen may be considered where many pictures or plates are to be shown in small spaces. It is well to have a conspicuously placed bulletin board; one on a level with the eye is most useful. Other articles which may or may not be wanted in the corridor are a wrapping-stand with receptacles for paper and twine, for protecting books in stormy weather, a large waste-paper basket beneath it, an umbrella rack, a settle, and door-mats or runners. Hat-racks are sometimes provided, but not generally, and only large libraries find a check-room

necessary. The corridor may or may not be the best location for a drinking-fountain, but one is likely to be needed in the building, and an approved sanitary fountain should be used.

Circulating department.—The loan desk may almost be termed the heart of the library, and its placing and arrangement are of great importance. The receiving space should be convenient to the entrance, the charging space should be near to and control the exit, while the registration space is best at the side or rear of these, and out of the line of direct passage; whether separate desks, or combined into one large one, these should be planned to avoid congestion during busy hours, but should be close enough together to be taken care of by one person in quiet times. Much friction and delay are saved by adapting each part of the desk perfectly to the kinds of work to be done there, so that not one unavoidable motion is necessary; filing trays should be fitted to the particular charging system used, and drawers and cupboards should be exactly where needed. There should be space for the book-truck beside the carding tray, etc. One large library recently made some changes in its desk which have made it possible to do increased work there with one assistant less than before, while a few simple changes in a desk at one of its branches were estimated to save about half an hour's time each day in routine work.

Thirty inches is a good width for the top of the desk, and forty inches a good height, if the counter type of desk is used. Battleship linoleum inlaid in the top of the desk makes a good surface to work on which can be kept clean easily and which is not as quickly worn off by the books as the finish of a wooden top. If renewals and book orders are taken by telephone, it is important to have a receiver at the desk, or to have the telephone booth, if there is one, convenient to the desk.

Turnstiles are doubtless necessary in some places, but they are not inviting; many people dislike them, and they are at

times dangerous for children to use without supervision. They may often be dispensed with by placing the desk so that entrance and exit are no wider than is absolutely necessary and are properly controlled.

Display racks furnish one of the very best means of unobtrusive suggestion or guidance of aimless readers in selecting their books. Hence it is wise to have enough of these, conspicuously placed; they are made with various modifications, often in combination with a bulletin board which is useful in calling attention to the contents of the rack. Small racks for displaying printed bulletins and reading lists for distribution are also convenient.

Card catalog cabinets are more likely to prove permanently satisfactory if made by one of the large firms specializing in such work; if the order is given to the general contractor, special attention must be paid to measurement, construction, and fittings of trays, and it is a good plan to furnish a tray of a standard make as a sample and require that it be exactly duplicated so far as this does not infringe on patents. Where the cabinet stands out in the room, it may be desirable to keep it so low that it does not obstruct the view of the room, and a long low cabinet combined with a seat at the back looks inviting and utilizes space.

Reading and reference rooms.—Tables should have properly cored or built-up tops to prevent warping. If large tables are used, the width should be ample to permit of the use of both sides comfortably; four feet is satisfactory, and three and a half the least that should be considered. Length may be whatever desired, so long as proper proportion to width is maintained, though very long tables are not recommended for any room of ordinary size. Not less than two and one-half feet of table length should be allowed for each chair; three feet is much better, and even more space will be appreciated by readers who dislike the proximity of neighbors. Thirty inches

is a good standard height. Some round tables may be desirable to break the monotony and occasionally an oval shape fits a particular space well; the round ones may be from four to six feet in diameter, though the latter are too large for any but large rooms. If legs are set well in from the corners and stretchers are high enough to prevent their use as foot-rests, there will be much less marring of tables. The tops should be secured to the frames in a way to allow for expansion and shrinkage. Some individual study tables will make for comfort of serious workers; tops two by three feet are practical, but they are better larger if space permits.

Chairs with wooden seats are most durable; the saddle seat seems to be comfortable to most people. The least expensive strong chair is probably the bent-wood type, but it is so light that it tips over easily, an objection in a crowded room; it also sometimes causes annoyance by squeaking when the screws work loose. A straight-backed chair on good, simple, craftsman lines proves very satisfactory for students working at tables, and a small armchair, such as the "Bank of England" or the "Windsor" model, seems more inviting for those who come to do leisurely reading. Eighteen inches is a good general height for the seat, but a few higher and lower ones may be wanted; a librarian fitting up a new building recently had two requests brought to him by users of the library, one from a short stout lady suggesting that some chairs with short legs would add greatly to the comfort of herself and others, and the second from a tall, slender one who put in a plea for some higher chairs. Metal disks or glides should be put on all chairs; they are far more satisfactory and durable than rubber tips or caps. A few large, comfortable armchairs disposed in nooks and corners always attract occupants.

Window seats may serve the triple purpose of screening radiators beneath them, adding much to the inviting appearance of the room, and increasing the seating capacity; fire-

side seats are also attractive in front of or beside fireplaces. A backless bench seat which can be approached from either side, and with a broad, flat return arm at either end to serve as a book-rest, is useful in a book alcove, and occasionally in a large reading-room a circular seat fits in well. If any seats or armchairs are upholstered, leather is the most suitable material to use. Revolving chairs are more convenient for the desk of the librarian and assistants, who often have to leave them hastily. * If the delivery desk is high the desk chairs here should correspond in height, and these higher chairs also require footstools adjusted in height for comfort; the foot-rests are sometimes fitted into the desk itself. Light stools are handy in consulting books on lower shelves, and if bookcases are without base-steps, stools or steps may be needed to reach the upper shelves.

If the librarian's desk stands in one of the public rooms, a low roll-top desk which will not obstruct the view is convenient. All other desks would better be flat-topped, and the size may vary with the use to which the desk is to be put; librarians' and catalogers' desks should be fitted with some standard-size card files; specially outfitted catalogers' desks are made by one or two library houses, and good stock typewriter desks are also in the market. Magazine racks and cases are planned in various ways; smaller libraries usually find the racks which display the current numbers preferable to the pigeonhole cases. Plate-glass fronts to the pockets of these racks show the magazine covers to good advantage, and, with an alphabetical arrangement, make it possible to dispense with labels. Cases or drawers should be planned for holding the unbound back numbers. For newspapers several varieties of stock files are available.

An arrangement for shelving and for consulting dictionaries and atlases easily and expeditiously is desirable, and for this purpose a double-faced case has been devised about three and

one-half feet high with the top shelf divided by a lateral partition through the center, giving shelving for two rows of dictionaries and similar-sized ready-reference works, with the lower shelves undivided and spaced closely for holding atlases and map folios lying flat; length and width can be varied with the books to be accommodated, and the flat or sloping top is of a height convenient for consulting them standing. For wall maps a simple wooden frame suspended like a *marquise* and fitted with curtain roller springs for the maps is inexpensive and practical. If the library possesses many large valuable folios, folio cases with roller shelves will be desirable, and locked cases should be provided for rare and costly books.

Vertical files are necessary, not only for office correspondence, but also for filing pictures, clippings, pamphlets, etc. Drop-front file cases are made for large photographs and prints. Cabinets for storing bulletins and posters may utilize space under windows or glass partitions, or be set into the rear of the delivery desk.

It will prove economical to provide good book-trucks and enough of them to expedite daily work; library-supply houses will fill orders to match a special finish if desired.

A good clock is useful in nearly every room in a library. It should be a silent clock with large dial, and should be so placed as to be visible from all parts of the room.

Children's room.—The relation of the size of this room to the probable number of children who will use it at any one time as a reading-room should influence the general character of furnishing and the arrangement of furniture; thus, if a maximum of seating capacity is required, aisle space, shape and number of tables, placing of catalog cases, magazine racks, etc., must be regulated with this in mind.

Two heights of tables and chairs accommodate the children well; tables twenty-three and twenty-seven inches and chairs with seats fourteen and sixteen inches are good heights, with

window and fireside seats fifteen inches high and the same depth. Racks similar to the magazine racks should be placed near the low tables for the little children, to hold the picture books which are kept in order much more easily in such racks than on the shelves.

A few slant-top reading-desks, long enough for three or four chairs at each, break the monotony of many tables, and seem especially desirable because they may be placed so that the light comes at the best angle for reading and because the children maintain a comfortable and healthful posture in reading at such desks.

Book-shelves should be from five feet three inches to six feet high, and eight inches deep inside. One case with glass doors which lock is useful for the choicer illustrated editions of juvenile books. If a lavatory is needed in this room, it can be fitted into a cabinet uniform in height and width with the bookcase units.

Staff rooms.—The long hours during which many libraries are open make provision for the comfort of the staff imperative, and a suite consisting of locker-room, toilet and lavatory, rest-room, lunch-room, and kitchen or kitchenette are desirable, though for a small staff the three last-named rooms may be combined in one by fitting it with a folding kitchen-cabinet containing the gas or electric stove, cupboard for dishes and cooking utensils, drawers for linen, etc. A couch, some easy chairs, a restful color scheme different from that of the other parts of the building, and some home-like touches in curtains and pictures will help to give this retreat an atmosphere of detachment from the busy rooms where the working hours are spent, too often under stress.

Office, work-rooms, etc.—These should be fitted up to facilitate the work to be done in each, according to its character. At least one typewriter is indispensable; it should be one which makes several good carbon copies, and for cataloging

use, should be equipped with devices for holding cards, for two-color ribbon, and with the necessary cataloging symbols on the keyboard. The quieter machines should be considered for library use. Some sort of duplicating machine is essential; there are many kinds—mimeograph, neostyle, printograph, writerpress, hektograph, schapiragraph, etc.—and even the simplest and cheapest is much better than none. For the medium-sized library the power multigraph with printing attachments will soon pay for itself in saving printer's bills, and is a fairly good substitute for a printing department.

Other labor-saving machines will be mentioned later, but one more requires special emphasis here—the vacuum cleaner, with proper attachments for sweeping, book dusting, etc.

Provision should be made for the systematic storage of supplies and all working materials and equipment, including the cleaning outfit for the janitor; the latter should be a handy man provided with the necessary tools for making all sorts of minor repairs, and the tools should have their regular places for convenient, orderly, and safe storage.

Slop-sinks should be so placed that cleaners do not have to carry water unreasonable distances; they may be set into the walls between rooms, with access to them from either room through cabinets set into the bookcases or continuing the case lines.

Electric-light switches should be located conveniently for the staff, but not too temptingly for the small boy; the switch-board cabinet can easily be set into the wall or desk paneling.

An automatic house phone very soon pays for itself in the saving of time in a building of more than two or three rooms, and buzzers frequently have their uses as a supplement to or as a cheaper substitute for the interphone. If there is more than one floor and no elevator, a book lift is an economy.

Lecture and club rooms.—For auditoriums of any size most city codes now require stationary seats, and there are numerous

firms which specialize in these. A speaker's desk or table, a few platform chairs, a reader's desk with shaded light, and a stereopticon or moving-picture equipment may also be needed here. For the club-rooms a few ordinary chairs are better for small group meetings, supplemented when the rooms are to be filled by folding chairs which may be stored when not needed. Folding benches are also useful for the story-hour, but it is important to plan the catches so that small prying fingers cannot manipulate them and cause a bench to collapse during the story time.

Floor coverings.—Cork tiling probably most nearly approaches the ideal floor covering yet devised for libraries, but it is beyond the means of most of them; rubber tiling is also expensive and not entirely without objections. Cork carpet of the best grade and thickness, properly laid on a wood floor, and properly cared for, is durable, quiet, and satisfactory. Domestic makes of cork carpet seem better than the imported. When cemented directly to a concrete floor, the condensation of moisture beneath it sometimes gives trouble, and a water-proof coating for the concrete is now available which promises to prevent this trouble. The carpet should be well seasoned before using, and cleaners should be instructed not to let water get into the seams; if the moisture penetrates the cement and stands underneath, the carpet will soon rot out at the edges. The periodical oiling or varnishing of the carpet keeps the pores filled and greatly prolongs its wearing qualities; detailed directions for the care of cork carpet are given in the article listed under that topic in the bibliography.

The best grade of battleship linoleum is gaining favor as a library floor covering, and its firmer texture and imperviousness to water would seem to offset the very slight advantage the cork carpet may have in noiselessness.

Vestibules and toilet rooms should have tiled floors, and the latter also a high tiled wainscoting with coved base.

Light and light fixtures.—Theoretically one is inclined to decide on indirect lighting for any library. The cost is from 10 to 30 per cent greater than direct lighting, however, and for the average small library whose funds for maintenance are so often inadequate there is much to be said for what is called the semi-indirect, which differs from the indirect in having a translucent shade giving both transmitted and reflected light, while the eyes are still sufficiently protected from the bright glare of the lamp. Overhead lighting should be sufficient to dispense with case, desk, and table lights, except possibly one or two table lights for readers who require unusually strong light. For the best results with reflected light, either indirect or semi-indirect, the lamps must be adjusted at the proper distance from the ceiling, the latter must be white, and the lamps and reflectors must be kept very clean.

Great improvement has been made in the past few years in the designing and manufacturing of light fixtures and shades, and it is no longer difficult to find simple, tasteful fixtures at reasonable prices. The darker metal finishes require less care than does the polished brass to keep them looking well.

Cost.—Prices vary so with time and locality that no schedule of prices can be of general use. As on most other things, prices have advanced materially within the past few years. In comparing building costs of many libraries, there is much variation in the items of furniture and fittings included in the general building contracts and those not so included. The proportion of cost of furniture and fittings to the cost of the completed building ranges, in the comparisons made, from 10 to 20 per cent of the whole, and it is wise in planning a building to have a sufficient allowance for the furnishing.

Many of the state library commissions have collected data as to cost, desirability, etc., of everything needed in equipping a building, and it is well for the librarian and trustees of any

library planning or engaged in refurnishing a building to take advantage of this information, and also to visit libraries of similar size and like problems.

The Committee on library administration of the American Library Association has undertaken a comprehensive study of library equipment and labor-saving devices adapted to library use. Its first printed questionnaire sent to the libraries of this country asks for all possible information about the following list, the general items of which are given here as suggestive both of further equipment which may be needed or considered, and of this committee as a source of information concerning every article included in the list, for although some of them classify as supplies rather than under the headings of this chapter, and others will be considered only by the large libraries, they are all pertinent to it so far as convenient places do need to be planned for keeping and using them. They are: adding machines, addressing machines, billing machines, binding and repair materials, book-pockets, book-supports, book-trucks, book-typewriters, brushes and dusters, bulletin boards, card-alphabets devices, card and paper cutters, cash registers, copying machines, counters, date-holders, dating-stamps, dictating-machines, dummies, exhibition frames, filing systems, finger pads, floor-covering, floor machines, folding machines, fountain pens, guide cards, index guides, ink, inkpads, inkwells, intercommunicating systems, label holders, labels, loose-leaf systems, magazine binders, magazine covers, mail openers, manifolding machines, map cases, metal furniture, moistening devices, music binders, newspaper files, numbering and dating machines, pamphlet binders, paper-fastening devices, paper presses, pasting machines, pencil sharpeners, photographic copying machines, printing presses, sealing machines, sign-making devices, stacks and shelving, stamp-affixing machines, telephone attachments, time records of staff, time stamps, typewriter ribbons, typewriters, umbrella stands, vacuum cleaners, visible indexes.

Care of furniture.—Good furniture is easily ruined by improper care, and it is rarely safe to trust to the knowledge and judgment of janitor or janitress in its treatment. The makers or a reliable furniture dealer can give full directions for caring for a given finish; these directions should be given in detail to the cleaners, with sufficient supervision to have them carefully followed.

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XII

THE ADMINISTRATION OF A PUBLIC LIBRARY, ESPECIALLY ITS PUBLIC OR MUNICIPAL RELATIONS

ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK
St. Louis Public Library

What is a public library?	Checking of errors
Public control by a board	Regulation of expenditure
Conditions of establishment	Appointments
Source of support	The librarian
The budget	Organization of the board
Methods of payment and account- ing	Committees
Appropriation or tax	Library reports
Certification of bills	Statistics
Pay-rolls	Publicity

What is a public library?—The test that will determine whether a library is truly “public” or not has never yet been laid down with authority. Its ownership, control, support, operation, and use are the determining factors. If it is owned, controlled, supported, operated, and used all by the public, there is no doubt about the matter. Such public libraries are those of Boston, Chicago, and St. Louis. But a library may be for free public use when privately owned, controlled, supported, and operated, like the Pratt Institute free library in Brooklyn. Such a library is generally considered public by those who use it. Oftener a library that is owned, controlled, and operated by a private body is publicly supported, wholly or in part, by agreement between the owners and the public. Such are the public libraries of New York City and Buffalo, N.Y. Less often a library owned and operated by the public is supported

wholly or partly by the income of an endowment. All these different kinds of libraries are loosely known as "public" if their use is free to all. But the word "public" rarely appears in the legal title of a library unless it is either owned by the city or town or has an agreement with it to do public work.

Public control by a board.—Public control is exercised usually through a board of trustees or directors, which may have a greater or less degree of independence. Occasionally this board has other functions; for instance, it may be the regular board of education or it may have in its charge also museums and art galleries. The public body of which the board is a creature is usually the city or town, but occasionally the county, the school district, or some other public entity. Thus the public library of Portland, Ore., is a county library, while that of Cleveland, Ohio, is a school-district library.

Until recently the counties of most states had no power to establish and support public libraries, but since the successful operation of a county-library law in California this power has been more frequently bestowed and county libraries are becoming more common.

The most usual form of library board is a separate appointive body. The conditions of choice and service are very various. In a large majority of cities the mayor has the appointing power; in many smaller places, especially in New England, the town elects, either in town meeting or by direct vote of the citizens. In a few cities the city council elects. A plan, once common, but now going out of use, is to allow the board of education to choose the library board. Sometimes the board is self-perpetuating; that is, it fills its own vacancies, but in this case the library is generally a private corporation doing public work by contract or an endowed institution receiving a small public subsidy. It is quite usual to make one or more public officials ex-officio members of the board. In some places there has been an effort to insure the representation of

different institutions, different elements of the community, different religious bodies, or different political parties. This is the case in Philadelphia and Scranton, Pa., and in Cincinnati, Ohio. Women are frequently members, especially in small places. The ideal trustee is a good business man or woman, interested in education, with few prejudices, affiliated with no narrow group, capable of continued interest in the library without trying to hamper the librarian by too close interference in detail.

Terms of office vary from three to six years; the lower number is quite usual. Generally a certain number of terms expire every year, but occasionally all terms expire with the mayor's. This plan was formerly more general but has been found to favor political control. In self-perpetuating boards the term is generally for life or during good behavior. The best opinion now favors a small board, of not more than five members.

The members of the board are generally called "trustees," but quite often "directors." Occasionally other names are used, such as "library committee," "board of managers," "commissioners," or "board of agents." In cities under the commission form of government some trouble has been experienced in placing the public library. The board of trustees has sometimes been retained, but often the library has been treated as a department of some one division of the city government. Librarians have been unanimous in their insistence that when this is done the library shall be classified with other educational institutions. Here the single commissioner under whose jurisdiction the library is placed has in general the powers and duties of the old library board. In commission-governed cities employing a city manager the board has usually been retained, and this seems the best plan.

Conditions of establishment.—Most states now have laws defining the conditions under which municipalities may establish

and maintain public libraries. In most cases advantage is taken of this law, and very often the state law alone defines the library's connection with the city or town. Sometimes, however, this is done in a section of the city charter, or by city ordinance. There may also be special acts of incorporation or the like; or agreements or contracts between the library or donor and the city, which in some cases consist only of a letter offering a gift and its formal acceptance.

The library property is generally held by the city or town and simply administered by the board, but the board may hold it as the city's trustees, or sometimes real and personal property may be differently held. In many cases the board has been legally decided incompetent to hold any property at all. Where the library is a private corporation it is not unusual to find that part of the library's property is owned out-and-out by the board and part by the city, although the public, of course, knows no difference. This is the case in New York and Brooklyn.

Source of support.—Public funds for the support of the library, unless from the income of an endowment held by the municipality, are in the last analysis always raised by taxation. The library may receive the proceeds of a special tax of so many mills or fractions of a mill on the dollar on the assessed valuation of the place, or it may receive a specified share of the general city tax, or the city may appropriate money for the library as for its other departments. In some cases libraries receive both the proceeds of a special tax and an appropriation. A library may also receive the proceeds of special fines or licenses. Thus in Massachusetts the proceeds of dog licenses are given either to schools or libraries.

The budget.—Most public libraries now regulate their annual expenditures by a budget, or classified schedule of expenditure, adopted at the beginning of the year. This budget may be made, wholly or in part, by the appropriating body. For instance, in New York the Board of Estimate and Apportionment

subdivides its library appropriation into such items as "salaries," "books," "fuel," and "light," and no change can be made without the city's approval. In these cases the amount of each separate item usually originates with the library and is granted or modified after suitable investigation.

But in other cases, and especially where the public money used to operate the library is the proceeds of a tax, and is not an appropriation, the budget is made by the board itself, and instead of being a fixed schedule that must be followed is simply an expression of its intentions—a statement of the way in which it expects to spend its money. And even when a board makes no budget at all, the librarian will find it a convenience to make one for himself, in which case it indicates merely his own intentions with regard to his recommendations to his board.

Methods of payment and accounting.—With the exceptions noted above, the expenditure of public money is usually left to the discretion of the board. But even where the city allows the library to spend its money as it likes, it does not always turn the money over to the board to hold and pay out. Where it does so pay over the money, it may do so in a lump sum, in equal instalments, on requisition (presumably with vouchers), or irregularly, as the taxes come in. In other cases the city retains the money, in which case the library may pay bills by drafts on the city or the city may pay the bills, duly certified by the library, in its own way. In case the library owns productive property it generally uses the income as it likes, although, as noted above, boards are often legally incompetent to hold such property, and then it is turned over to the city to hold in trust, in which case bills are paid from the income as from public appropriation.

The library, of course, accounts to the city for its expenditure of public money, and in many cases the city specially audits the library's books. In general the library accounts to

the city by means of an annual report, which is almost always printed. This is often the only accounting, and indeed there may be no accounting at all. Monthly statements are made in some cases, but in others the vouchers that go to the city treasurer are the only account made.

Appropriation or tax.—The right of the library to receive public money at all is usually determined by the state law—often the same general library law that defines the library's relations to the municipality. The law may be mandatory, but is generally only permissive. And not even a mandatory law prescribes all details; such a law generally becomes effective in a given locality only after a popular vote, and even then the appropriation or special-tax rate may vary within specified limits. A minimum appropriation may be prescribed, not by law at all, but by an agreement with a donor, as when the Carnegie gifts specify at least 10 per cent of the cost of the building. As a matter of fact this amount is rarely enough to maintain a Carnegie building and few libraries keep within it.

Within the prescribed limits, where these exist, or without them, where they do not, the library's public income is determined in various ways, as by the city council, by popular vote, by the city charter, by one or other of various city boards, or by contract with a donor.

Moneys received by the library itself in the course of its daily work, such as fines for overdue books, are variously treated. In many cases these constitute a good part of the library's income. In most cases the library retains these and uses them for what purposes it will, but in no inconsiderable number they are turned in to the city, which generally, though not always, holds them subject to the library's call.

The amount of fines, and also that of the private income, if any, enjoyed by a library, are sometimes taken into account by the city in making its appropriations. The library reports its total requirements for the year and states how far its own

receipts and income will go toward meeting them, with the expectation that the city will furnish the balance. This is what is done in New York, and applies, of course, only to the case of direct appropriation.

Certification of bills.—The librarian himself handles very little money—sometimes none at all—the bills being paid by the city if it is the custodian of library funds, otherwise by the treasurer of the board. His contact with the bills is merely to certify them and pass them on to the proper officer for payment. It is necessary, of course, to see that no bills are contracted or paid unless properly authorized by the board. If the board adopts a yearly budget it may simply be necessary to see that the total of bills in each category does not exceed the amount appropriated; if each expenditure is authorized separately, each bill must be compared with this authorization. In large libraries there is generally a financial officer of some kind who makes these adjustments and comparisons and whose audit is necessary before bills are paid.

Pay-rolls.—Pay-rolls are handled in various ways. The library may draw on the city treasury for the whole amount necessary for a single pay day and make the individual payments itself, either by cash or check; or the pay-roll, properly certified, may be sent to a city department, which pays the library employees as if they were its own.

Checking of errors.—The actual receipt of goods and the actual performance of work ordered is of course implied in the certification of the bill. The best municipal practice is now to require that the person certifying to receipt or performance shall not be the one who gives the order. This may be arranged in a large library by employing an official checker to examine work and goods and certify them.

Regulation of expenditure.—Details and rate of expenditures are generally supervised in the librarian's office. Even when there is a budget he will naturally adopt some program or plan

of subclassification. For instance, when there is an item for books, he will wish to decide in advance how much he can afford to put into reference books and how much into books for circulation, how much for children's books, how much for each of his branches, etc.

Part of this expenditure he will extend uniformly over the year, but not all. Salaries will be so extended, but not heating and lighting. In the purchase of books current fiction will be fairly uniform, but not purchases like that of a quantity of children's books to replenish the shelves of a branch.

Appointments.—In the appointment of its force, as in the disbursement of its funds, the library is usually left to itself, but not always. A few institutions are subject to city civil service rules, the local civil service board making out examination papers for admission to the staff and for promotion within it. Other libraries, to a considerable number, have their own systems of service, and this is the plan that commends itself to most librarians.

The librarian.—The executive officer of a library is usually styled the "librarian," although he is occasionally given the title of "director." He is employed directly by the board and is sometimes also its clerk or secretary. He is its expert adviser and the responsible head of the library. The amount of independence that is allowed him in the administration of his office depends on the constitution and traditions of his board. They may outline to him merely the broadest lines of policy or they may wish to dictate details of daily work. In a library of considerable size, where the librarian is, as he should be, a competent executive officer, his duties are properly all those that usually appertain to such an officer, such as the formulation of rules for the conduct of the library, the making of nominations for appointment and of recommendations for promotion and salary increases, etc. In general the board represents the owners of the library: that is, the public, who

are interested in results—not in the methods of bringing them about, which are naturally left to the librarian's judgment. If he is secretary of the board he is of course present at its meetings; if not, he should always be present by invitation.

Organization of the board.—The board meets usually once a month, although some library boards meet as often as once a week. It commonly controls the expenditure of money either by making definite annual appropriations (a "budget") at the beginning of the fiscal year and requiring the librarian to keep within them, or by acting upon individual expenditures as the librarian recommends them.

The board commonly has a constitution and by-laws, which define its powers and those of the librarian. They may be very brief or may prescribe details somewhat closely. The best usage favors brevity.

Committees.—The board does its business ordinarily through committees, and decides matters at its meetings largely by acting on reports from these. Standing committees may include an administration or library committee, to care for ordinary details of administration, appointments, promotions, etc.; a book committee, to pass on book titles for purchase; a finance or auditing committee; a building or house committee (if the library building is too large to be cared for by the committee on administration), and an executive committee, to act for the board in intervals between its meetings. This is often composed entirely of ex-officio members, as officers and chairmen of committees. The board's officers are usually a president, vice-president, secretary (often the librarian), and treasurer. In cases where the city holds the funds and pays the bills and where the library has no property of its own the last may be omitted as unnecessary.

Library reports.—As noted above, the board usually makes a printed report annually to the city authorities. The bulk of this document consists usually of a report made by the librarian

to the board and includes statistical and financial tables. Such reports are often brief and intended to be consulted rather than read; others are readable accounts of the library's work for the year. Recent practice has tended toward the insertion of illustrations and toward making the report as attractive as possible to the general reader.

Statistics.—The non-financial statistics presented are of two kinds—those relating to the contents of the library and its condition and those relating to the use made of its contents. With the recent wide extension of the use of public libraries this second type of statistics has also expanded until it occupies the larger part of the tables presented. Of the first type there is usually a statement of the number of books owned by the library, verified by inventory, with the number found missing, deductions for books lost, soiled, or worn out, and additions by purchase and gift. These may all be given by classes and by localities—central library and branches, for instance. It has been customary in this connection to print a long list of book-donors' names with the amount of their gifts, but many libraries are now omitting this. Statistics of use include those of registration, reading-room attendance, hall or library use, and circulation of various types—over the ordinary issue desk, in the children's room, through branches, stations, and traveling libraries. These are generally all classified. Percentages of the number of books shelved in each class and the number circulated in each class are also usually represented, either in separate tables or in parallel columns with the corresponding numbers.

Library statistics were formerly rarely comparable one with another, because of the different ways in which they were presented. A scheme for drawing up the statistical part of a report was adopted by the A.L.A. Committee on library administration in 1914, and statistics according to this plan are now appended by many libraries to their reports.

Publicity.—The function of a library report is really double—to render an account of the library's work to the public and its representatives, who are paying for it and who have a right to inquire about its methods and its results; and, second, to stimulate public interest in the library. This stimulation of interest is in itself an important part of the library's general administration and is effected also in other ways—by issuing cards or placards calling attention to the location of the library and its uses; by slides in moving-picture theaters; by window displays of books or other material where this is possible; by library publications, such as a monthly bulletin or by frequent separate printed lists, and by embracing every opportunity to speak before local organizations in explanation of the library's aims and its ability and willingness to do public service. This sort of publicity work, which some librarians dislike to call "library advertising" on account of the objectionable connotations of the word, has this in common with all legitimate forms of trade advertising—the fact that it is an effort to acquaint the public with a branch of service about which it is to its advantage to be thoroughly informed. The efficacy of such efforts received noteworthy demonstration during the Great War, and probably publicity work for individual libraries will profit thereby. Some authorities even favor paid advertising in the press and elsewhere, while others are of the opinion that libraries, like the public schools, are in position to secure without charge all the publicity they require.

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¹ Increased costs have made the actual figures in these articles of little value, but relatively they still hold good.—A. E. B.

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XIII

TRAINING FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

MARY W. PLUMMER

Library School of the New York Public Library

The first printed mention of training for librarianship, as far as the writer has been able to discover, is in the Proceedings of the meeting of the Library Association of the United Kingdom in London in 1877. At this meeting Dr. Crestadoro of Italy called attention to it as desirable if not necessary, and spoke of a royal decree recently made effective in Italy requiring training for the personnel of the government libraries there. Several American librarians were present, and in their case the suggestion proved germinal. The subject was referred to in the Library journal and at the conferences of the American library association from time to time, in 1883 a committee on a library school was appointed, and finally a school was opened at Columbia college, in January 1887, owing largely to the initiative and efforts of Melvil Dewey, who was then librarian. Some twenty persons, experienced and inexperienced in library matters, attended the first session which lasted four months. The following year the course occupied seven months with a second year of the same length. The prejudice against formal training was very strong in some quarters, but gradually gave way as graduates of the school went out into the service and proved the superiority of planned and systematic training to the former fortuitous ways of learning.

Within five or six years three other schools were opened, while the Columbia college school was transferred to the State library at Albany in 1889, where it has since remained. The schools opened at Pratt, Drexel, and Armour institutes were all connected with the institute libraries which were for circulation as well as for reference. The first-named institute

conducted for a number of years the leading circulating library of Brooklyn, there being no public library in the city. This connection is mentioned because it was the immediate reason for a differentiation in the character and methods of the accompanying schools, which had not the large and important book-resources of a college or reference library to draw upon, but were enabled, on the other hand, to provide their students with actual practice in the methods of circulating libraries and with contact with the public at all the points of contact found in a free circulating library containing a reference department.

Other schools followed, some of one type and some of the other, with individual variations, until there are at present writing eleven schools in the United States virtually making reports to the American library association through its committee on library training. This committee's first report was made in 1891 at the San Francisco conference. As yet there has been no inspection of schools, but a small appropriation has been granted for that purpose, and the committee will soon be ready to undertake the inspection of such schools as are willing to be visited. Further references to the work of this committee will be made later.

The geographical distribution of these schools is not entirely satisfactory. Whole regions of the country, such as the Pacific coast and the Southwest, have no schools—indeed there is no library school west of the Mississippi river—while in New York state alone there are four, and in Pennsylvania two. It would seem desirable for the American library association to look over the ground carefully and apportion schools, conducted by commissions, or by designated libraries, to those parts of the country where they do not exist and where library conditions show need of them, and thus do, not only a positive work, but the almost equally important negative one of forestalling the establishment of schools poorly equipped, poorly conducted, and without authority in the profession.

The earliest schools began without any requirements for entrance except the furnishing of references as to character and standing; but once under way and having secured a measure of recognition and popularity, they began to sift the applications received by various requirements, such as college graduation, entrance examinations, the high-school diploma or certificate, and to lay stress as far as possible on desirable personal qualifications. There is little, if any, doubt that these tests and requirements have helped to raise the level of librarianship, at the same time giving the schools student material on which it was worth while to expend time and labor. A composite application blank showing the sort of information sought by the schools before admitting students would gather information on the following points:

Personality: Name; age; health; physical defects; married or single; nationality of parents; names of references; name, address, and employment of parents.

Education: preparatory schools, with dates; college, with dates; degrees; languages known, where acquired, extent of use; special courses of study or reading; travel, at home or abroad.

Experience: stenography and typewriting, speed acquired, machine used; library experience or training, what, where, how long, why terminated; experience in teaching, business, or other occupations; name of last employer.

Miscellaneous: Character and extent of personal reading; periodicals read regularly; library periodicals read regularly; object of taking course.

Future position: Definite library position in view? minimum salary that would be acceptable; location preferred, if any.

Opportunity is given also for general remarks, descriptive of tastes, aptitudes, experience, etc.

The view that personality matters in a professional or vocational school, while not new or limited to library schools, is perhaps held with greater tenacity by them from the fact that their product is put to immediate use in quarters well

known to the schools and that criticism at once follows any instance of failure on the school's part to consider personality in admitting students or in recommending graduates. This is a help, not a hindrance, to the schools and is so considered by them.

The curricula vary with the type of schools. Those connected with public or endowed circulating libraries supply their students with considerable practice in all the library routine, ranging in amount from 300 to 465 hours in the year leading to the certificate; the library school directly connected with a college or reference library goes deeper into the theory, history, and philosophy of its subjects of study and into research work, its practice being chiefly in the line of classification, cataloging, book-selection and evaluation, and reference work. There are but five schools requiring a second year for graduation and of these, two are connected with university libraries and one with a reference library. Even in these the senior class is small compared with the junior, owing largely to the difficulty of holding students for a second year of expense, when at the end of one year's study positions are easily obtained. The expedient of making the second year one of paid practice to a considerable degree is being tried by two schools.

The leading subjects in all the curricula are cataloging, classification, the study of works of reference, and library economy, which covers some thirteen heads. Nearly all the schools add to these courses instruction in library administration, buildings, book-selection, bibliography, work with children, and government documents. Especial stress is laid upon one subject or another in cases where the school has specific demands upon it from the region to which it supplies assistants, or where it has unusually good facilities for presenting certain subjects. Lecture and seminar methods are the usual ones in most of the schools. The two-year courses as a rule require the presentation of a thesis or a bibliography.

Naturally the curricula of the schools have felt the influence of the changes and development in library doctrine and practice. As the field of librarianship has extended from the town to the county library, from the city circulating library to library system, from the pioneer library commission to the league of library commissions, as librarianship has made specialties of work with children, work with the blind, with schools, with rural communities, with state institutions, and as special libraries, legislative libraries, and bibliographical societies have entered the field, the schools have had to adjust and extend their courses of study in order to keep pace.

Instruction in the schools may now be divided into four classes; bibliographical and historical, technical, administrative, and critical; the technical and administrative work receiving, as a rule, most attention, that is if we confine the word bibliographical to its narrower meaning. An average list of the subjects included under these heads is as follows:

Administrative:	History of printing
Library administration	Technical French
Library buildings	Technical German
Library legislation	Technical Italian
Library accounts	Trade Bibliography
Book-buying	National Bibliography
Work with children	Subject Bibliography
Technical:	Critical:
Cataloging	Appraisal of fiction
Classification	Book-selection and annotation
Subject-headings	Periodicals
Library economy	Miscellaneous:
Binding	Current topics
Bibliographical:	Survey of library field
Reference work (incl. Government documents)	Typewriting
History of libraries	Practice

Schools differ considerably in their schedules of hours, several schools devoting the morning hours to lectures and recitation and leaving the afternoons free for study and practice, others alternating study and lecture or recitation hours throughout the day. The average number of hours per week spent in class exercises is approximately eighteen to twenty. Saturday is generally considered a holiday and the usual school holidays and vacations are observed. It is customary in addition to the regular faculty, to call upon librarians or members of kindred professions and callings, to give lectures, singly or in courses, and the visiting of libraries and of various places connected at some point with book-making or distributing, is required by all schools. During the spring vacations, parties of students are conducted on visits to the libraries of near-by cities and towns. The inspirational and educational value of these visits is tested by subsequent quizzes or examinations.

Following the common tendency in the educational world, more and more stress is laid upon equipment. Connection with libraries of size and usefulness, whose resources are varied, is emphasized, working-tools are freely prescribed for the school shelves; collections for the study of methods of administration are formed, and machines for the practice of typewriting and sewing-benches for the practice of book and pamphlet sewing are furnished by some schools. All schools give opportunities for practice in at least some part of actual library work, and this practice is under supervision, is reported on, and must meet certain standards, in order to insure formal recognition.

The recognition given for work will be found in the appended list under the names of individual schools. As a rule, the schools regard certificates and diplomas as statements concerning the students' work in the school and in practice, and not as predictions or assurances of success in librarianship, hence they urge libraries to refer to the schools for information in regard to the individual graduate who applies for a position.

Summer schools.—Very soon after the founding of library schools, it was discovered that the graduates of these could not be secured as librarians of small libraries paying small salaries, so that it was evident something must be done if these libraries were to be raised to a higher efficiency.

The summer library school, with a term ranging from six to eight weeks, conducted by a library commission, a university, or some authoritative body, was the immediate solution. These schools give elementary courses, and, in some cases, special courses in one subject, such as cataloging. Pass cards are issued for the completion of these subjects, and a certificate or a diploma is given on the completion of all the subjects taught.

Where the summer school restricts its attendance to persons already in the work and holding paid positions, it is raising the level of efficiency, and the majority of summer schools now appreciate the fact that such restriction is necessary. Otherwise the summer courses would provide a short cut into the service for persons who might otherwise compass a more complete training or who might be unable to pass the educational tests thought necessary by the regular schools for the protection of the profession. A report on standards of entrance, standards of teaching, and the giving of recognition to students, was presented by the Committee on library training at the A.L.A. conference of 1905. The League of library commissions, including all those commissions which were conducting schools and summer courses, had the report reprinted, thus showing its approval of the recommendations of the committee.

It is difficult to say how many summer schools are being conducted, since in some states they are held more or less irregularly; but the leading ones are those carried on annually by the Wisconsin, Minnesota, Indiana, and Iowa commissions, with one at Albany conducted by the New York state library school and one at Chautauqua, which is a private venture. The New Jersey commission's summer school holds biennial

sessions. The case of the small library was at once improved not only by the greater efficiency of those librarians or assistants who had taken the summer courses, but by the general arousing of ambition and stirring of interest among librarians by the new opportunity and new knowledge. The broadening effect was at once perceptible.

Apprentice classes.—The large library, with a large and fast increasing staff and frequent resignations and promotions, found very little help in the library schools for the supplying of its lowest grades of service, owing to the same reason as that of the small library, its inability to pay salaries large enough to attract the trained worker to the subordinate positions. The solution (if it may be called a solution) found for this difficulty was the apprentice-class. The report of the Committee on training for 1905 dealt only with one form of apprentice-class, that assembled by a library for its own use, receiving training in that library's methods in return for assistance given, and at the end of a given period being appointed to positions or furnished with a letter of recommendation to other libraries. Since this procedure would affect the library field in general, it was considered by the committee and recommendations were made in regard to this kind of apprentice-class. Concerning those classes formed by libraries strictly for their own use, members of which were given no credentials or formal recognition, the committee of 1905 had nothing to say. Whether the report had any effect upon apprentice classes of the type dealt with, it is hard to say; but from the papers and discussions before the Section on professional training at the conference of 1910, it was evident that there was still a wide difference of opinion among libraries as to the object, value, and influence of the apprentice system, and from the papers and discussions before the same section in 1911, that the subject was being considered much more seriously than formerly and in all its bearings. There is no doubt, in view of the large library systems developing in our

cities of the first and second rank, that the question is an urgent one and that it needs the combined wisdom of those libraries to establish some plan that shall answer immediate requirements without injuring the ultimate value of the library's work by lowering standards of admission to the staff.

Younger people are admitted to the apprentice classes than would be taken into the library schools, the high-school certificate is often accepted in lieu of an examination, and in some libraries the training is entirely practical and utilitarian, guided by the immediate need of the library rather than by that of the apprentice, which is after all the need of the library in a more far-reaching sense. Counsels of perfection cannot be insisted on in the present stage, but they are valuable as giving librarians something to work toward and something with which to compare present achievement. Examinations for promotion are a means taken to insure the continued study of the apprentice who has entered the service, and unfortunately they are the only means that is effective with some assistants. To be able to do without these examinations, except to test technical knowledge and personal efficiency, would mean that the library had reached a most desirable condition, where its whole force was influenced not by any material inducement but by an impulsion from within to self-improvement and study for the love of knowing.

Institutes and Round tables.—Still another form of instruction has been developed in what are called library institutes and round tables. These are for the benefit of those librarians of small libraries who cannot spare the time or perhaps the money for even a summer course. The institute was tried first and consisted of two or three meetings at some town or village containing a library, one of which meetings was usually open to the public and intended to arouse public interest in the welfare and development of the local library. Librarians from neighboring towns and villages were invited, papers were read,

discussion encouraged, and a question box was almost always a feature. Usually an official of the commission, of the state library, or of the state association, had charge, the local librarian was chairman of a committee on local arrangements, and a number of experienced or school-trained librarians or assistants attended to give assistance. The chief value of the institute was as a method of propaganda rather than of instruction, since their usual and best effect was through the public session and through the making of professional acquaintance outside the meeting. The librarians most needing help felt timid and constrained in large meetings of strangers, and got more practical assistance from the individual conversations between sessions than in the meetings themselves. These facts pointed the way to the round table. This is a gathering of a few librarians living in towns or villages not far apart, to whom is sent at their request someone capable of giving them help in their daily problems and difficulties. At least two sessions are held at one of the libraries concerned, and attention is concentrated on the immediate expressed needs of these libraries. It is much easier to secure such expression under these circumstances than in the institute meetings, and it is also easier to discern what, if any, profit has accrued to the libraries. Although institutes are still held, they are being used rather to arouse local interest and enthusiasm in the cause of some library existing or potential, while the round tables increase in number and in popularity. In states with commissions, they are often carried on by the state organizer on her rounds.

Training in normal schools.—For a number of years past there have been sporadic attempts to introduce training in library economy into the normal schools, either in their winter or summer courses. In 1903, 12 normal schools reported some work of this kind. In some schools, the mistake was made of devoting the whole instruction to matters of technique, and those following the course were allowed to believe that the

training was sufficient to make librarians of them. The error of this has been generally recognized, and it is now conceded that the training given in normal schools should consist largely of training in the selection and use of books as tools and as a means of general culture, with just enough simple technique to enable the teacher or the school librarian (nearly always the two offices are combined) to administer and care for her small collection. The importance of this training has long been recognized by librarians, but it is only within six years that influential members of the teaching profession have awakened to what is fast becoming a necessity for teachers. The New York state education department is perhaps at present making greater headway toward the desired goal than most other educational bodies, though it was later in taking up the matter than some others. The training of librarians for high schools is a subject attracting considerable attention and beginning to occupy space on the programs of meetings of teachers. As high-school teachers are usually graduates of colleges rather than of normal schools, the normal-school courses in school-librarianship do not altogether fill the want in the case of high schools, and either the regular library schools will have to specialize in their training for those students who wish to go into high-school libraries, or the colleges will have to follow the example of the normal schools and institute similar courses. The school that is large enough and has a large enough library to require all a librarian's time can, of course, secure one from a library school, but where there must be a teacher-librarian the training during the college course would seem the proper requirement.

The wisdom of the American library association in establishing early (1890) a standing committee on training for librarianship, has been amply justified. It has enabled the Association to keep in touch and on a friendly footing with all sincere efforts toward raising the standards of the profession through

the various grades of service. The schools are not afraid of the Association but rather look to it for encouragement and assistance. The first exhaustive report was made in 1903, by the directors of six library schools. It summarized the reports of 9 library schools, 10 summer schools, 33 apprentice classes, 15 college courses in bibliography and the history of printing, 12 normal-school courses in library economy, and 4 correspondence courses. The same committee presented a report on standards of library training in 1905, which standards have not been superseded nor indeed quite reached in some cases.

LIST OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS

New York state library school, Albany, N.Y. Connected with New York state library, supported by state appropriations. Founded in January, 1887, as Columbia college library school, New York City, transferred to New York state library, April, 1889. Present director, James I. Wyer, Jr., state librarian; vice-director, Frank K. Walter. Time required for graduation, two years of thirty-six weeks each. Special courses: nine advanced electives in second year, library buildings, college and reference library work, administration, cataloging and bibliography, indexing, subject-headings, making of bibliography, or study of a selected community, law and legislative reference library work. Entrance requirements since March, 1902, degree from college registered by state board of regents; no exceptions except for special students. Total hours, including practice work, instruction, and preparation of work, junior year, 1,505; senior year, 1,350. Degree of B.L.S. for graduation, since 1902. Tuition, for first year, \$75 for students from the state, \$100 for others. Second year, \$25 for students from the state, \$50 for others. Library visiting obligatory.

Pratt institute school of library science, Brooklyn, N.Y. Connected with Pratt institute, supported by institute endowment. Founded in November, 1890. Present director, Edward F. Stevens, librarian of Pratt institute free library; vice-director,

Josephine A. Rathbone. Time required for graduation, one year of thirty-eight weeks. Second year, normal course, elective, open to graduates of other schools. Entrance requirements, examinations in history, literature, current events, general information, French and German. Minimum age, twenty years. Hours of instruction, 513 in general course of first year. Practical work 400 hours, practical work in Brooklyn public library, 25 hours, optional. Tuition, \$77 for each year. Library visiting in and about New York, 45 hours, required. Vacation trip of a week, optional.

Drexel institute library school, Philadelphia, Pa. Connected with Drexel institute, supported by institute endowment. Founded in November, 1892. Present director, Corinne Bacon. Time required for graduation, one year of thirty-four weeks. Entrance requirements, examinations in history, literature, current events, general information, French and German. Minimum age, twenty years. Total hours 1,428, of which about 350 are given to lectures and 200 to practice. Certificate of graduation. Tuition \$50, plus \$50 for required field work and library visiting.

University of Illinois library school, Urbana, Ill. Connected with the University of Illinois, supported by university appropriation. Founded in September, 1893, as Armour institute library school, Chicago, transferred to state university, September, 1897. Present director, Phineas L. Windsor; assistant director, Frances Simpson. Time required for graduation, two years. Entrance requirements since 1911, college graduation. Hours of instruction, junior year, 480, senior, 402. Hours of practice, junior year, 220; senior year, 310, plus one month of practice in an approved library. Degree of B.L.S. for graduation. Tuition \$24 per year, \$20 for junior library visiting, \$50 for senior field work and visiting, \$10 matriculation fee, and diploma fee \$5.

Syracuse university library school, Syracuse, N.Y. Connected with Syracuse university, supported by university appropriation. Founded in the autumn of 1897, as Department of library economy of the liberal arts college. Present director, Mary J.

Sibley, acting librarian of the university. Time required for graduation, two years for college graduates for B.L.S. degree, one year for B.L.E., four years for combined academic and professional course for B.L.E. degree, two or three years for certificate courses. Entrance requirements for certificate, college entrance examination and one in general information; college entrance examination for four years' course; college graduation for two-year course for degree of B.L.S. and one-year course for degree of B.L.E. Total hours each year of professional work, 1,388, which includes 260 hours of practice in junior and senior years of four-year course, and 200 in junior and 260 in senior year of certificate course, and 160 in one-year technical course. Tuition, \$75 per year, plus \$5 for certificate, \$20 for diploma or degree, \$5 matriculation fee; \$66 required incidentals in four years' course only. Library visits about \$50.

Training school for children's librarians, Pittsburgh, Pa. Connected with Carnegie library, supported by separate Carnegie endowment. Founded in 1900. Present director, Sarah C. N. Bogle. Time required for graduation, two years of forty weeks each. A special one-year course is offered to graduates of other library schools. Entrance requirements; college graduation and recommendation, or entrance examinations in literature, history, and general information. Minimum age, eighteen years. Hours for lectures and preparation; first year 1,080, second year 440. Hours of practice; first year 600, second year, paid practice work. Certificate for first year, diploma for second year, special certificate for special course. Tuition; \$100 for first year, and for special course, no tuition for second year. Textbooks and printed supplies, \$25, matriculation fee \$5, library visit, \$15.

Simmons college school of library science, Boston, Mass. Connected with Simmons college, supported by appropriation from college endowment. Founded in October, 1902. Present chairman library faculty, Mary E. Robbins. Time required for graduation, four years. Hours of technical instruction, 1,677, including 273 hours of practice during the third and fourth years. For college graduates, one year of technical study and approved technical practice after leaving the college, before receiving the

degree. Entrance requirements, high-school graduation or its equivalent. Tuition, \$100 per year. Degree of B.S.

Western Reserve library school, Cleveland, Ohio. Connected with Western Reserve university, supported by separate Carnegie endowment. Founded in September, 1904. Present dean, William H. Brett, librarian of Cleveland public library. Present director, Julia M. Whittlesey. Time required for graduation, one year of thirty-six weeks. Entrance requirements, examinations in history, literature, general information, two languages, one of which must be a modern language, and one month's satisfactory practice in approved library. Minimum age, twenty years. Number of lecture periods, 320; hours of practice, 200. Certificate for graduation. Tuition \$100, graduation fee \$5; plus \$10-\$25 for required library visits.

Library training school, Carnegie library of Atlanta, Ga. Supported by separate Carnegie endowment. Founded in September, 1905. Present director *ex officio*, Katharine T. Wootten, librarian, Carnegie library of Atlanta. Principal, Delia F. Sneed. Time required for graduation, one year. Entrance requirements, examinations in history, literature, general information, current events, one language. Minimum age, twenty years. Hours of instruction, 497. Hours of practice, 464. Certificate for graduation. No tuition fee.

Wisconsin library school, Madison, Wis. Connected with the Wisconsin free library commission and the University of Wisconsin. Founded in September, 1906. Present director, Matthew S. Dudgeon; preceptor, Mary Emogene Hazeltine. Time required for graduation, one year. Entrance requirements, a personality well suited to library work; examinations in history, literature, current events, general information, German; use of typewriter, and four weeks practice in a library for those entering without previous library experience. Certificate for graduation. Tuition, for residents of Wisconsin, \$50, for non-residents, \$100. The commission (school) pays the traveling expenses of students to and from the required field practice.

Library school of New York public library, New York City. Connected with Public library, supported by separate Carnegie gift.

Founded in July, 1911. Present principal, Mary W. Plummer. Time required for graduation, two years of thirty-six weeks each. Second year, largely elective courses, and paid practice. Entrance examination in history, literature, current events, general information, French and German. Minimum age, twenty years. Hours of instruction, first year, 680, second year, each course, 204 hours. Hours of practice, first year, 348, second year, 1,445 hours paid, or 540 hours unpaid. Certificate for first year, diploma for second. Tuition, \$75 first year, for students outside metropolitan district; \$45 for those within it. No tuition for second year. Local library visits, about 45 hours, vacation trip optional.

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XIV

LIBRARY SERVICE

EMMA V. BALDWIN

Brooklyn Public Library

Edited by

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THE LIBRARIAN

The success of a library depends in large measure upon the ability of the man or woman at the head of it, and the importance of securing a trained librarian's expert assistance at the inauguration of the work connected with the establishment of a library can not be too strongly emphasized. If the person selected has had both training and library experience, as should be the case, he will be able to render valuable service to the library board in outlining its policies, in planning its building, and in selecting the books. To attempt to save money by postponing the appointment of the librarian until the preliminary arrangements have been made is the poorest sort of economy.

How appointed.—The choice of a librarian for a particular position should not be restricted to local candidates, but the selection should be made from the best men and women available at the salary offered. The names of possible candidates for the position may be secured from any of the several library schools of the country, from the secretary of the American Library Association, or from the state library commission. The aid of librarians of large libraries in the vicinity may also be enlisted, as they will usually be found very willing to render any assistance within their power.

Even should the minor positions in the library come under the jurisdiction of the municipal civil service board, the position of librarian is usually placed in the exempt class. The

personal equation plays so large a part in the selection of the right man or woman for the place, that no one should be selected without a personal interview. Such an interview will usually disclose more of a candidate's fitness or unfitness for the place than could be gleaned from either letters of recommendation or formal examinations.

Trustees or committees charged with the selection of a librarian should realize that the question of salary will seriously affect their problem, and they must first determine how much they can afford to pay. If the funds available permit, the librarian should have had training in an accredited library school or experience in a well-organized library.

If the trustees can not command the services of a trained librarian an effort should be made to secure one who is capable of development and who, though lacking technical knowledge, is possessed of the education and personality required for the position. A librarian with the right spirit will find abundant opportunity for gaining a knowledge of library methods and practice through the information on the subject to be found in books and library publications. A number of the library schools also offer summer courses, and by special arrangement a librarian may frequently gain permission to study the methods of a well-conducted library.

Qualifications.—The qualities which go to make up the *ideal* librarian have been set forth in great detail in various library publications.¹ Summed up, we find that those usually enumerated as desirable are exactly the same qualities which make for success in any walk of life, plus a wide knowledge of books and strong educational qualifications.

The spirit of ~~expansion~~^{progress} and progress which has characterized the age has had its effect upon the library profession and many new duties have been laid upon the librarian. The library is no longer a retreat for the recluse who wants to shut

¹ Cannons, *Bibliography of library economy*, pp. 188-91.

out the world. What is now needed in the executive administration of our libraries is not so much scholarship as "efficiency" with all which that word at present implies. Scholarship, it is true, is as essential a qualification as it ever was, but scholarship alone will not enable the librarian to cope with the problems which now confront him. The efficient librarian is he who most successfully combines the scholarly attainments which characterized the librarian of former times, with the executive ability which today marks the man of affairs. Mr. Harrington Emerson cites as the first principle of efficient management "a clearly defined ideal." In the conduct of the library the librarian needs a broad conception of the ultimate aim for which he is working. Without this he will be like a captain of a ship upon the high seas with no particular port in view. He must realize that "no other agency matches the book in power and availability in quickening the sensibilities, refining the tastes, enlarging the understanding, diversifying the experience, warming the heart, and clarifying the soul."¹ His purpose will be to gather into his library the books which shall exercise this power in his community. His study of conditions will disclose many opportunities for service, and his constant effort will be to make his store of books more useful, and to perfect his machinery of distribution so that his collection may be made more readily available. Perfection of mechanical detail should be only a means to an end, and every plan that is inaugurated or mechanical device adopted should serve directly or indirectly to further the ultimate purpose of the library.

The adoption of business methods in a library means simply the systematizing of all details of the work to attain the best results. The librarian must be as alert as the business man or manufacturer to adopt appliances which will save time or labor, because by means of them work may be done more effectually and with less effort, wasted energy converted into power, and

¹ Herbert Putnam, Address, A.L.A. Conference, Ottawa, 1912.

time saved at one point expended where it will accomplish more.

Term of office.—The term of office of the librarian is usually during the pleasure of the board, but the practice of electing the librarian at the close of a specified term of service still obtains in some libraries.

It is manifestly to the best interest of the institution that no definite term of office should be set, but that the incumbent should be permitted to continue his work without interruption so long as he retains the esteem and confidence of his superiors and of the public. When a definite term is fixed, sufficient pressure may be brought to bear upon the trustees by the friends of a rival aspirant to cause a worthy librarian to fail of re-election. Such a result may prove unfortunate alike to the individual and the library.

Duties.—The most satisfactory results are obtained where the chief librarian is permitted to appoint assistants, select books, buy supplies, make regulations, and decide methods of cataloging, classifying, and lending, all subject of course to the approval of the trustees.

It is the librarian's duty as the executive officer of the board to see that the policies formulated by the board are faithfully carried out, and since he is the one who comes most directly in contact with the actual problems of the institution, it is very desirable that he be consulted before any policies are decided upon.

In many libraries, the librarian is the secretary of the board and in this capacity is brought into close relations with his trustees. In other libraries, where the office of secretary is held by a member of the board, the major part of the secretarial duties falls upon the librarian's shoulders. In either case it is generally conceded that the librarian should be present at all the meetings of the board for consultation and advice, and that no important step should be taken without first consulting him.

It is also the duty of the librarian to present to the board all matters in relation to the conduct of the library, upon which they should be informed, and to bring before them for discussion all questions upon which their judgment may be helpful.¹ Upon the librarian will devolve the responsibility of so stimulating and fostering the interest of the trustees in the work of the library that their duties will not be performed perfunctorily. The librarian must so study his board, present his recommendations, and marshal his facts that the statements he makes will carry conviction and enlist their sympathetic support.

The librarian in his relation to his staff occupies a position similar to that of an employer to his employees, for while he is a paid assistant he usually has the authority to make appointments, fix salaries, determine hours of service, and formulate rules for the government of the staff. All such acts are of course subject to the approval of the board of trustees, and when the staff is a large one, may be further controlled by a definite code governing appointments, salaries, etc. Still,

¹ "There is a general impression that directors of a library board should necessarily belong to some one of the learned professions where members are presumed to be book lovers. The management of a public library involves the exercise of many kinds of intelligence and ability besides those used in the judgment of books. Directors may quite as wisely be selected—a part of the number at least—because of eminence in executive ability, in business sagacity, in unblemished integrity, in political power, as for mere literary knowledge."—Lutie E. Stearns, *Essentials in library administration*.

"A large public library in a great city must be on the lines of the modern business organization, where the trustees have the functions of a board of directors in a great corporation, depending in a large measure on the trained professional executive, first as professional adviser, and secondly, as working executive, while in a small rural or town library the librarian is often without professional training and usually without much business experience, so that the trustees do not obtain the same professional advice and cannot depend upon the same executive skill."—Bowker, R. R., *Duties of the trustee in a large library*, *Library journal*, January, 1913.

even when such a condition obtains, the responsibility of the librarian for seeing that all members of the staff are accorded the same privileges and held to the same requirements is in no sense abated.

In his dealings with his staff, whether large or small, the librarian perhaps shows most clearly his fitness or unfitness for his responsible position.

An executive officer must have a judicial mind and be capable of receiving and weighing conflicting evidence. He must not be easily prejudiced nor easily swayed in his judgments. If he is to retain the loyalty and respect of his colleagues his decisions must command respect for their fairness, and for the indication they give of his grasp of the situation.

It is the librarian's duty to develop in the staff a spirit in accord with the true aims and purposes of a public library. His own spirit is almost invariably reflected by the staff, so that by both example and precept he is influencing the attitude of his staff toward their work and directly affecting the efficiency of his institution.

Mr. Frederick W. Taylor in his "Principles of scientific management" says, "What we are all looking for is the ready-made man, the man whom someone else has trained." In consequence, the demand for such men and women is far in excess of the supply, and most librarians are confronted with the necessity of training and developing their own assistants. When the number to be trained is large enough to make formal instruction in classes desirable, much of this detail work may be delegated to others. But the librarian can not successfully delegate to another the duty of securing the loyalty of the staff to the institution and its policies nor the inculcation of the principles which he wishes upheld.

The librarian in his relation with the community has "the greatest opportunity of any teacher in the community. He should be a teacher of teachers. He should make the library

a school for the young, a college for adults, and the constant center of such educational activity as will make wholesome and inspiring themes the burden of common thought. He should be enough of a bookworm to have a decided taste and fondness for books, and at the same time not enough to be such a recluse as loses sight of the point of view of those who know little of books."¹

The community should expect of its librarian an expert knowledge of books and a desire to afford every possible facility by which books may be freely used and appreciated. A librarian should be keenly interested in the welfare of the community he serves and in sympathy with all that promotes its happiness and prosperity. He must be possessed of great tact in order that the library shall remain an impartial and non-partisan institution, reflecting the spirit of progress and the advanced thought of the day, but neither favoring nor opposing any movement. The community should expect the librarian to be such a careful student of local conditions that, in many instances, it will find its demands upon the library anticipated, and the needed books ready for use.

Hours of service.—The librarian's hours of service will depend largely upon the regulations governing the work of the staff in general, but no one satisfactorily filling an executive position can ever be bound down to a regular schedule of hours. The executive must, however, be not less but rather more conscientious than the humblest member of his staff. This will not necessarily be shown by a more rigid adherence to a set time of arrival and departure, but rather by the quality of the work done and by the earnestness of his attention to business during the hours of work. Someone has said that every human being is as lazy as he dares be, and the executive over whom there is no one to keep watch and who has no one to hold him up to the highest performance of duty may easily lapse into slothful ways

¹ J. C. Dana, *Library primer*.

and bad habits which may result in a loss of power of concentration and steady application, and an increasing tendency to procrastination in work and decisions. The executive must keep before himself a high standard of efficiency and measure himself by that standard.

Vacations.—Hand in hand with the effort to secure a greater efficiency in all lines of human endeavor has come a consideration of the conservation of resources and an effort has been made to prevent the useless waste of both human energy and natural products. Rest and relaxation are essential to continuous good work, and the best librarian recognizes this fact and as conscientiously takes his period of rest as he attends to his other duties. From the right kind of a vacation a man returns to his work with renewed vigor and health. Too close application to any problem is apt to destroy one's sense of proportion. A brief absence from one's desk enables one to return with a clearer vision and to attack old problems with new zest.

The vacations of librarians are as a rule considerably shorter than those of college professors or school principals, but somewhat longer than those usually taken by business men. Some libraries arrange for a longer vacation for members of the staff holding positions of responsibility, and the practice is undoubtedly of great benefit to the individual and in the long run a wise provision for the best interests of the library.

STAFF

Requisites.—The qualifications demanded of the members of the staff, could they be obtained at the salaries paid, would differ very little from those expected of the chief librarian. The exigencies of the case, however, compel most libraries to accept as assistants young people who have just completed their high-school course, and whose immaturity precludes the possibility of their being either experienced or very widely read. Positions in the higher grades of service are frequently filled by promotion.

Practically all libraries demand a high-school education or its equivalent, and most insist that the candidate shall possess a pleasing personality and prove herself capable of forming habits of careful and accurate work. The ability and willingness to work harmoniously with others and to perform cheerfully any task which is assigned are also essential qualities in assistants.

In spite of the rather rapid increase in the number of schools for library training, the more rapid growth of libraries has made the supply of trained workers still inadequate to meet the demand, and consequently there has been no general insistence among libraries that applicants, even for special positions, shall be graduates of a library school.

The fact that library-school students readily obtain positions at initial salaries somewhat higher than those usually paid to beginners in library work will serve to indicate a recognition on the part of libraries of the value of the thorough and systematic course of training given in the schools. The higher entrance requirements of the schools, two of them demanding a college education, means that the graduates are better equipped than the majority of those who enter without the library-school training, and are therefore more likely to secure rapid advancement.

The requirements for admission to library service are constantly being raised, and the time is probably not far distant when a preliminary training will be considered indispensable. This is evidenced by the fact that practically all of the larger library systems have already found it necessary to establish training classes, and further by the fact that the course of study in these classes is broadened and the length of the period of instruction gradually lengthened.

Appointments to the library staff are usually made after a written examination. These examinations are competitive and may result in a candidate's being (a) accepted on probation; (b) admitted to an apprentice or training class; (c) appointed to the regular staff. Such examinations eliminate undesirable

applicants and leave trustees free from outside influence. The examination should be based upon the supposition that candidates have had at least a high-school education or its equivalent and should be a test of the candidates' knowledge of books, general information, judgment, and taste.

At the conference of the American Library Association held at Buffalo in 1883 the following resolutions were adopted:

"Resolved, That efficiency in library administration can best be obtained through the application of the cardinal principles of an enlightened civil service, viz., the absolute exclusion of all political and personal influence; appointment for definitely ascertained fitness; promotion for merit, and retention for good behavior; and

"Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Association, in large public libraries, subordinate employees should, so far as possible, be selected by competitive examination, followed by a probationary term."

The experience of the years since the adoption of these resolutions only confirms the conviction at that time expressed, and in general this is the course followed, with a tendency toward a lengthening of the period of probation into one of definite instruction and training.

Civil service.—A number of libraries as departments of the city government have been included under the jurisdiction of the civil service commission. This arrangement has not proved acceptable to libraries for several reasons.

The chief difficulty arises from the fact that no system can be devised or method adopted which will make it possible for one board to select the hundreds of helpers needed to meet the requirements of the highly specialized and widely diversified lines of work of the various city departments. The rules adopted to meet the conditions obtaining in one department work hardship when applied to another, and the constant effort to secure special rulings or exemptions consumes both time and energy, and the consequent delay and vexation of spirit more or

less seriously affect the quality of work accomplished by the department.

Another objection is that of geographical limitation which forms a part of most civil service systems and which requires that candidates for examinations shall be residents of the city or the state or the nation, as the case may be. "This residence rule is probably more burdensome to a library than to any other city department because of the limited number of trained or experienced workers. There is ordinarily only one library in each city and that library usually has already on its staff those residents who are experienced in library work and who want positions."¹

The knowledge that their positions are safe and that they can not be removed except after charges have been preferred and proved frequently tends to destroy an assistant's efficiency and to put a premium upon laziness and insubordination.

But, while a municipally conducted civil service system has seldom been found to work satisfactorily to the library, large libraries have found it necessary to adapt the principles of the scheme to their own needs and to devise for themselves a code of rules modeled upon those of the municipal civil service.

Such a scheme provides for a graded service classified according to the duties of the various positions and kinds of work in the library, establishes rules to govern appointments and promotions from grade to grade, fixes the salaries of the several grades, and stipulates the conditions under which increases in salary may be granted. Rules of this sort may occasionally work a hardship to an individual, but in the long run they insure the greatest good to the greatest number and are the only means by which such matters as relate to the staff can be administered without partiality and unfortunate discrimination. Even with a well-formulated scheme enough special cases will

¹ Judson T. Jennings, Municipal civil service as affecting libraries. Pasadena Conference, May, 1911.

come up for decision to prove the necessity for clearly defined principles.

Method of appointment.—The power to appoint assistants is in some libraries vested in the librarian, the approval of his recommendations by the board being perfunctory. In other libraries appointments are made by the board of trustees, based upon the recommendations of the librarian, or the appointments may be in the hands of a committee of the board, the librarian being merely its mouthpiece.

It is essential to the discipline of the library that its librarian exercise practical control of his staff and that his powers be clearly defined and upheld by the board. The best results are secured when all recommendations emanate from the librarian and are acted upon by the trustees after careful consideration. The latter should feel a sense of their responsibility in the matter and demand such explanations of conditions as will enable them to keep in touch with the work of the library and to approve or disapprove the recommendations of the librarian in accordance with their best judgment.

Titles.—The organization of libraries has not yet become so standardized that any uniformity of practice obtains as to the classification or grading of the staff, either as to titles or salaries. No list that could be prepared would suit the different kinds of libraries, and each library must in a measure regulate these matters to meet local conditions.

A word of caution against too free a use of titles may not be out of place. Titles may be desirable to designate relative rank, authority, and specific duties, but they also have a tendency to limit responsibility and interest, to create class distinctions, and to cause assistants to place their allegiance to their department or corps before loyalty to the library as a whole. Such a spirit breeds dissension, and unless all are working for the common good the result will not be satisfactory to the public, to the trustees, or to the staff itself.

When titles are used the briefest form is best; such for example as "shelf-lister" in place of "clerk in charge of the shelf list." The titles most generally in use are those which designate special lines of work, such as cataloger, reference librarian, children's librarian, librarian-in-charge, or branch librarian.

Departments.—The small library has advantage over the large in that each assistant has the opportunity of keeping in close touch with all phases of the work, and usually devotes one part of each day to work with the public and another to work with the books.

In a large library specialization is not only inevitable but highly essential. The staff of a small library must consist of all-round workers capable of turning readily from one task to another. That of a large library may consist of people with decided limitations in several directions, but possessing marked ability along one particular line. In the large library the quantity of this highly specialized work of various kinds is large enough to justify the employment of specialists. With an effective administrator the work of these specialists may be grouped and co-ordinated to produce a well-balanced organization, equally efficient in all of its varied lines of work. Mr. Charles De Lano Hine in his "Modern organization" strikes a note of warning in regard to over-specialization which perhaps libraries may do well to heed.

"The increasing difficulty of securing men to fill the higher official positions in large corporations is due mainly to over-specialization. The line of least resistance has proved too tempting. A manifestation of unconscious laziness may be the habit, bred by specialization, of side-stepping complete responsibility by passing the question to another specialist. The great problem in organization is to develop under modern conditions the old-time feeling of undivided responsibility.

"Where highly specialized departments are created, departmental jealousies may normally be expected. Loyalty is

measured by devotion to the department rather than to the corporation. Not only is there a negative lack of incentive in learning the work of another department, but there is a positive objection to crossing sacred departmental lines. The problem is easier when the number of departments is minimized. Specialization running rampant is often responsible for the creation of unnecessary departments."

The wise executive will recognize this tendency and seek to minimize the resultant dangers. One way by which this may be accomplished is by frequent conferences of the librarian with the heads of the several departments, thus constituting what may be regarded as a cabinet or council. By keeping before the heads the ultimate aim of the institution as a whole, by fostering their interest in the creation and development of new departments, and by impressing upon them their interdependence, the librarian will secure the right kind of co-operation and interest.

The work of all departments should be well defined, and there should be as little overlapping of responsibility as possible. Each department should be given the opportunity to develop that part of the work entrusted to it, it being the duty of the executive to see that all of the work is properly co-ordinated and that each department is working in accordance with the ultimate aim of the institution as a whole. In this connection it should be borne in mind that authority should go with responsibility, and the responsibility of each departmental head for the work assigned to him should be recognized by the opportunity to regulate and direct that work so as to secure the best results.

Hours of service.—The report of the committee on library administration as presented to the American Library Association at the Pasadena Conference (1911) showed that 187 libraries had replied to the questionnaire circulated by the committee. The deductions from these answers were divided into three groups according to size:

- Group A 1,000 to 10,000 volumes.
- Group B 10,000 to 50,000 volumes.
- Group C 50,000 to 200,000 volumes.

The findings of the committee in regard to the hours of service were as follows:

"In Group A the average is 40 hours weekly, the extremes being 48 and 30 hours, and 44 hours the usual time required.

"The average for Group B, 71 libraries reporting, is 41 hours. Thirty of these libraries require 42 hours, six require 41, six require 45, nine 48, and five, 39. The remainder require from 29 to 52 hours weekly.

"In Group C, 41 libraries reported; one reporting a schedule of 72 hours weekly! Leaving this one extreme case out of consideration, the average is 45 hours. The shortest schedule calls for 39 hours, and the longest 48 hours, the commonest being either 42, 44, or 48 hours."

The greatest difficulty with library hours is their irregularity. The usual hours during which the library is open are from 9 A.M. to 9 or 10 P.M.: and these hours can be covered satisfactorily only by requiring the staff to do day and evening duty on alternate days. The consensus of opinion seems strongly opposed to separate evening forces even in the delivery departments and reading-rooms since it is difficult to get a separate force of evening workers of the same calibre as the day force.

The hours of Sunday and holiday opening are usually fewer than those of the regular week-day opening, the general practice being to assign regular members of the staff for duty on these days. As a rule Sunday and holiday service is paid for as extra service or the time spent in such work is deducted from the worker's schedule for the other days of the week.

The present tendency is toward a reduction of the hours of service, and the relation between the working schedule and the health and efficiency of the staff is receiving considerable attention.

The report of Dr. John S. Billings, Jr., the medical officer of the New York Public Library, makes an interesting and valuable contribution to the study of the question. He says:

"During 1911 and 1912, in the performance of my duties as medical officer, I visited every branch of the circulation department at least three times, and interviewed all librarians and assistant librarians as to their past and present health.

"Early in the first tour of visits, it was noted that a relatively large proportion of the employees suffered from indigestion and dyspepsia. Many were under-nourished, and weighed from ten to fifteen pounds less than they did before taking up library work. This was borne out by the fact that many of them gained from five to ten pounds in weight while on their 1911 vacation, only to lose it again during the winter. Complaints of 'nervousness,' of being easily tired, of sleeping poorly, etc., were, in consequence, exceedingly common. These troubles were attributed to various causes, but chiefly to the irregularity of their meals, brought about by the present schedule of working hours of the library, and to the too short time (one half-hour) allotted for meals. Many stated that they ate but little when on duty, in order to avoid indigestion, and were, therefore, below their normal weight. Others were in the habit of taking light refreshment, 'chocolate,' etc., between meals. The majority of the employees are young women under thirty years of age, and provided that the conditions under which they work are satisfactory, should be relatively free from such digestive and nutritional disturbance. It was, therefore, thought worth while to investigate the matter further, in order to determine the source of the trouble.

"The schedule of working hours, as then in force in the circulation department of the library, necessitated irregular meal hours and only one half-hour was allowed for the daily meal at the library. The fact that the libraries are open at night, thus requiring the staff to be in attendance, was the cause

of irregularity. The members of the staff alternated on night duty. Either two or three days a week the 'early staff' of the librarians began work at 9:00 A.M. They were allowed one half-hour between 12:00 and 1:00 to prepare and eat their midday meal. They went off duty at 6:00, and the majority reached their homes for a seven o'clock dinner. Barring the too short lunch hour, these conditions are not bad. But on the other two or three days of the week they reported at noon, substituted for the 'early staff' while the latter were at lunch, and were not supposed to eat until 6:00 P.M. Bearing in mind that many of them live long distances from the library, this means, at the best, a meal at 11:00 A.M. (too soon after breakfast) and no more food until 6:00 P.M., which interval is entirely too long, especially as the intervening days of regular meal hours when on 'early' duty prevent the digestive organs from accustoming themselves to the changed conditions.

"It must be admitted that the librarians are, in a way, responsible for the former working schedule. In order to obtain their cherished weekly 'free' or 'silent' day, and the daily half-hour less duty in summer, they were willing to work longer, and put up with the short and irregular meal hours, and suffer the physical disabilities and discomforts previously mentioned.

"Should they be allowed to do so? The answer is 'No'—no more than very young children should be allowed to work in factories, despite their desire to do so.

"It was therefore recommended:

"1. That the daily recess period for meals of the librarians and the assistant librarians employed in the branch circulation libraries of the New York Public Library be one hour instead of one half-hour as heretofore.

"2. That every employee be required to take the full hour off duty.

"3. That no employee be permitted to make up lost time or do library work during the recess hour.

"In order to carry out these recommendations it was suggested:

"a) That the librarians and assistant librarians be required to work but forty hours each week, exclusive of recess period, instead of forty-two hours and a half as heretofore.

"b) That this schedule be in force in summer as well as winter.

"That when it seems advisable and the work of the library will not suffer, the branch librarian be empowered to permit such employees as live at long distances from their library, or who must use cars which are crowded with workmen at 6:00 P.M. to report for duty at 8:30 A.M. and leave at 5:30 P.M."

NOTE.—The Brooklyn Public Library, following the example of the New York Public Library, has shortened the working period from 42 to 40 hours per week with beneficial results, according to the reports for the first three months after the change was put in operation.

Vacations.—Vacations in libraries as a rule vary from two weeks to a month in length.

Of the libraries reporting to the American Library Association committee on administration, 42 allow either a month or four weeks; 32 allow three weeks, and 49 two weeks. One library reporting allows the librarian and heads of departments two months, and other assistants one month; ninety allow extra time to the librarian, and five include the heads of departments in the number receiving the additional allowance.

In small libraries each absence on account of illness may be dealt with separately and the length of time to be allowed with pay be determined in accordance with the merits of the case. With large staffs the number of absences naturally increases, and definite rules become necessary in order that all may be accorded equal privileges.

A few libraries allow no pay for time lost for illness, while the practice in other libraries as to the length of time to be thus

granted varies from a few days to a month or longer. From two to four weeks appears to be the average allowance.

Leaves of absence without pay are usually granted whenever they can be arranged without detriment to the service.

Salaries.—The following resolution in relation to salaries was adopted by the American Library Association at its meeting in 1893, and it still has force and meaning:

“Resolved, That in the opinion of the American Library Association the qualifications and salaries of library assistants in important positions should be on a par with high-school teachers; that applicants for positions in libraries should have at least a high-school education; and that the heads of large libraries should have salaries not less than those of public-school superintendents in the same cities.”

Although, unfortunately, this still represents the ideal rather than the real condition of librarians and assistants, the salaries paid librarians have steadily increased since that time, but not perhaps in proportion to the increase in the salaries of teachers during the same time.

The American Library Association committee on administration, already mentioned, found it difficult to make a satisfactory comparison of the salaries paid to assistants in various libraries. The following extract from their report will probably give as fairly as any statement can the current practice. The report covers only the libraries in Group C, i.e., those containing from 50,000 to 200,000 volumes.

“The average salaries for the senior assistants are as follows: Cataloging \$950; Reference \$1,010; Circulation \$875; Children's \$770; Order \$970; Binding \$770; Branches \$760. The junior assistants in all the departments are paid practically equal salaries, these ranging from \$360 to \$900. The average for the highest grade of junior assistants is approximately \$750. The best paid department is the reference department, in which 45 per cent of the senior assistants receive \$1,000 or more; the corresponding figures for the other departments being, Catalog

23 per cent, Circulation 34 per cent, Children's 28 per cent, Order 40 per cent, Binding 17 per cent.

"Substitutes are paid from seven and a half to thirty-five cents an hour and the usual daily rate is \$1.00."

Staff meetings.—In a small library in which the librarian and her assistants are in constant contact with each other and the public there is perhaps little need of formal meetings. As a library grows larger, and its work becomes more complex, its workers are divided into groups or departments with special duties and the contact of the chief librarian with the subordinates occurs less frequently.

Formal meetings then serve the double purpose of affording assistants an opportunity to bring their observations concerning the work of the library in its relation to the public to the attention of the chief librarian, and enables the chief librarian to acquaint the staff with the plans and purposes of the library board, thus fostering a greater sense of responsibility and promoting the enthusiasm which comes from the feeling that each member of the staff is a real participant in the work of the library.

Staff meetings may be classified as follows:

- a) The definitely instructive meeting.
- b) The general advisory and consultation meeting.
- c) The restricted cabinet meeting.
- d) The semi-social and semi-literary meeting.

In libraries where the majority of the staff have had no formal instruction in library economy, the staff meeting is frequently devoted to the instruction of the staff in reference work, cataloging, book selection, etc. Such meetings are held during library hours and are a distinct help in increasing the efficiency of the staff.

General staff meetings may include *all* members of the staff or in branch library systems they may be confined to the heads of departments and librarians in charge of the several branches.

These meetings afford the opportunity for a general discussion of the activities of the library and may deal largely with questions concerning the routine work, or they may be largely devoted to a discussion of the work in a broader sense and prove a stimulus to increased interest and enthusiasm to the staff as a whole.

The restricted cabinet meeting is general in libraries subdivided into departments, each of which is under the charge of a separate head. These meetings result in a unification of the several divisions of the work and secure a more concerted action among the heads of the various departments than would be possible if each worked independently.

Attendance at the last class of meetings is voluntary. The meetings are designed to promote the acquaintance of the members of the staff with each other and to increase enthusiasm and develop *esprit de corps*. These meetings are usually held in the evenings and are found to be especially stimulating in large libraries or in library systems where the staff is scattered over a large territory.

Staff rooms.—In the modern library building special attention is given to providing attractive rest and lunch rooms for the staff. These rooms are important factors in maintaining the health and efficiency of the staff and should be thoughtfully planned for, especially if the rules of the board require assistants to take at least an hour for lunch and dinner. In libraries or branches located in the poorer sections of cities where there are no good restaurants, comfortable staff rooms will be especially appreciated.

The rooms should be located far enough from the circulating-room to insure quiet. The lunch room should be equipped with the necessary conveniences for the preparation of simple meals, and where possible these should be placed in an alcove or kitchenette. Where this is done the lunch and rest rooms may be combined in one. The furnishing of these rooms will depend upon

the resources of the library. Easy chairs and a couch will make complete relaxation possible and are comforts which will be welcomed by the staff.

Apprentice or training classes.—Although the number of library schools has increased, their graduates do not begin to fill the vacancies in libraries. Previous to the establishment of the schools it was the custom for libraries to allow candidates for positions to work in the library, permitting them to pick up what information they could in relation to the work of the library in return for such assistance as they were able to give. In large libraries both the number of applicants for such privileges and the number of positions to be filled gradually necessitated the organization of these apprentices into classes in order that they might be given more formal and systematic instruction.

Apprentice or training classes vary in length from one to twelve months, the time of the course being divided between formal instruction and practice work under supervision. As a means of training for the lower grades of service the apprentice or training classes of the large library systems are doing excellent work. The tendency is toward the constant expansion and improvement of the course of training and away from the use of the apprentices as substitutes; the aim being to give the members of the training class as thorough a course in library science coupled with practice work in the library as the limited time will permit. As the staff of the large library must be largely recruited from its training class the importance of the work is obvious. (See paragraph Apprentice classes in chapter xiii, Training for librarianship.)

Rules.—In all institutions methods of procedure and of routine work become established through custom and precedent. New appointees may frequently be instructed in the practices and methods verbally and informally, and the institution be governed almost entirely by unwritten law.

Such a practice may work satisfactorily in a single institu-

tion, but when the work is conducted through branches it becomes imperative that some method of transmitting instructions be devised which will be more definite and less liable to misinterpretation and misapplication.

A fixed code is not only valuable as a manual for the instruction of assistants but for reference in all cases of doubt or dispute as well.

With uniform rules the public is accorded the same treatment in all the branches of the library and the possibilities of favoritism or invidious distinctions are minimized. Printed instructions are a safeguard to the members of the staff and often appease an irate borrower who is inclined to feel that an exception is being made in his case or that an individual assistant is disobliging. From the standpoint of economic administration uniform methods make it possible for an assistant in the library to go from branch to branch when necessary and to take up the work without the loss of efficiency which would result if it were necessary for her to familiarize herself with slight modifications of the detail work.

XV

BRANCH LIBRARIES AND OTHER DISTRIBUTING AGENCIES

LINDA A. EASTMAN
Cleveland Public Library

The history of city libraries, oft-times repeated, has proved that only a limited proportion of the population, beyond that within immediate and easy access, frequent the central library. To reach the remainder, some method must be adopted for carrying the books to them; the principal agencies used have been: (1) branch libraries; (2) deposit stations; (3) delivery stations; (4) traveling and home libraries. Whether one or all of these agencies be employed, the rule seems to hold good that, with the growth of the city, the progressive public library in this country evolves into a library system, with its central library and its outlying posts. In this expansion from a unit into a system the library follows the analogy so frequently pointed out between the development of the public schools and public libraries.

At the first meeting of the American Library Association in 1876, Justin Winsor gave this account of what was then the only important library system in the United States:¹

The Boston public library now consists of a central library, containing the great student collection in the Bates Hall, and a popular department of over 30,000 volumes. Communicating with the headquarters daily, by boxes passing to and fro, are six branch libraries, containing from seven to seventeen thousand volumes each, and situated from two to seven miles from the central library, forming a cordon of posts. Farther outlying we have begun a system of deliveries or agencies, where orders for books are received, which are

¹ Library journal, 1:125-26.

sent to the nearest branch or to the central library. The books are sent in response, and delivered at the delivery. In the same way the branches are deliveries of the central library. The system works well and popularizes the institution; and the branches and deliveries, instead of detracting from the importance of the central library, only serve to advertise it and to increase its circulation, so that now the issues of the central library are between two and three times what they were in 1870 when we had no branches; and the grand total of issues of the entire library is now from four to five times what it was in that year. There is, of course, more or less delay in the delivery service, owing to our boxes passing but once each way in a day. I deem it not unlikely that much time will before long be saved by using a telegraph wire for the messages; nor do I deem it impracticable to annihilate time by the pneumatic tube.

Quoting the above in 1909, N. D. C. Hodges called it "the gist of the philosophy of branch libraries." The rapid growth of library systems since 1876, when Boston had the only one of importance in the country, is an interesting record. The report of the World's Library Congress in 1893 gave 47 libraries having branches or delivery stations, or both, a total of 81 branches and 140 stations being recorded. The "Statistics of public, society, and school libraries" for 1908, published by the United States Bureau of Education, devotes Table 22 to city public library systems. The report includes 210 libraries, of which 151 have one or more branches each, 75 have deposit stations, 52, delivery stations, and 75, traveling libraries in schools and other institutions; a total of 485 branch libraries, 871 deposit stations, 418 delivery stations, and 5,618 traveling libraries are reported.

1. BRANCH LIBRARIES

The location selected for a branch library is generally near the local business or residence center of the district to be served. It is planned much as any small library would be; it may consist of a room or rooms in a building occupied by a coöperating

institution, such as a school, a park or field-house, social settlement, parish house, church, rented store, or it may be a fully equipped library building with separate room for each department of the work, and with added features of lecture- and club-rooms. The organization and methods are usually uniform with those of the central library, with possible variations to meet local needs.

A branch has its own collection of books, containing properly any books of which the use is constant enough to justify their retention there, while less-used books, expensive sets and, except in very special cases, books of which one copy should be sufficient for the city, are housed at the central library. The branch supplements its own resources from the central collection, telephone connection and regular messenger service making prompt deliveries possible. The work of the circulating and children's departments is usually relatively heavier, and of the reference department lighter, than at the central library, to which every one doing anything in the nature of scholarly research work is referred.

The centralization of much of the work of administration, book preparation and supply, frees the branch staff for more direct personal work with readers, and for developing the branch library as an educational center for the intellectual, civic, and social life of the community. A good presentation of the differences between an independent library and a branch library from the point of view of the librarian or branch librarian, of the assistant, and of the user of the library is given by A. E. Bostwick in his "The American public library," p. 237.

2. DEPOSIT STATIONS

A deposit station consists of a small collection of books varying from perhaps one or two hundred to as many thousand volumes, placed in a store, school, factory, club, or other available place, from which books are issued during certain

hours of each day or week. The station may be in charge of an assistant sent out from the central library, of a volunteer worker, of a teacher if at a school, an office employé of the factory, or the store-keeper or clerk; the first method makes it possible to maintain a higher average grade of service and quality of reading, and more reliable records, and therefore seems more generally desirable, though some of the other methods show a larger circulation of books for a given cost. If in a factory, school, or other institution, the success of a station depends to a large extent upon the active interest and coöperation of the firm or institution, hence it happens that the factory stations which show most satisfactory results are usually in those factories where the best general welfare work is being done.

3. DELIVERY STATIONS

These stations are operated in a similar manner to deposit stations, except that no collection of books is kept at the stations; orders for books are left by the reader, sent to the central library, and the books sent back by the first delivery, to be called for by the reader. For such stations the charging of the books, all statistical and record work, and in some cases even the computing of fines is done at the central library, thus reducing the work of the station agent to a minimum. Several of the libraries operating a large number of stations place them in stores only, often in drug stores; in some cases the additional custom brought to the store through the station is considered compensation enough, in others a fixed monthly or yearly sum is paid to the station keeper, or again he may be paid so much per volume, rates varying from a third of a cent to two cents for each book issued. The store station seems to admit of the possibility of fictitious padding of the circulation, without sufficient preventive checks.

The delivery station can be operated with a smaller number of books—its disadvantages being that the reader is dependent

entirely on finding-lists and his own (frequently insufficient) knowledge of books in making his selections, that he has to stop at the station first to leave the order and again to get his books, and that he has to repeat this process if none of the books asked for were delivered nor satisfactory ones substituted; the deposit station gives a collection of books to choose from—with the disadvantage that it may not contain the particular books wanted; deposit stations which are also delivery stations seem fitted to give the most satisfactory service, and this combination of the two types of stations is frequently made.

4. TRAVELING LIBRARIES

The traveling library as an adjunct to a city system is utilized in various ways. It is a small case of from twenty to fifty or more books sent periodically from place to place; the books are made up in fixed collections, or changed to suit the tastes or interests of different groups of readers. Undoubtedly the largest number of these traveling libraries go to the schoolrooms of the grade schools; these are more fully treated in chap. xxviii, *The public library and the public schools*, and the home libraries in chap. xxix, *Library work with children*. Other places to which traveling libraries are sent are the fire engine-houses, police-stations, factories, clubs, missions, settlements, and various other institutions. The traveling library can generally be put in charge of a volunteer librarian with supervision from the central library; it is important to keep the charging methods simple.

The above types of agencies are not always distinctly defined and one frequently takes on features of or merges into another; some stations, for instance, are also reading-rooms, while agencies called stations by one library are denominated branches by another. The separate branch reading-room, where it has been tried, has usually, if successful, added the circulating feature to its work. Conditions sometimes warrant specialized

branches limited to certain kinds of work; examples of this are the municipal reference branch which may be located in the city hall, the high-school library, the separate children's branch, a down-town business branch when the central library is removed from the business center.

A well-developed branch system may have abundant room for any or all of the minor types of agencies as supplementary and experimental agencies; a traveling library may grow into a station, and a station into a branch.

A system of branches sometimes develops before the central library, as in New York and Brooklyn, where for some years the headquarters of the branch work have included only the administrative offices without a parent library; Philadelphia and Cleveland are examples of systems in which permanent branch buildings have been built before the central library was either adequately or permanently housed.

5. HOME DELIVERY, COLLECTION BOXES, LIBRARY POST

Several attempts have been made to adapt a plan of home delivery of books to public library use, notably in Springfield and Somerville, Mass., in both of which places the experiment was carried on through a series of years, and discontinued because there were not enough readers who cared to avail themselves of the privilege and pay the small fee necessary to maintain the service. The St. Louis public library delivers books by messenger and allows their return in the same way, the card holder paying expense of transportation both ways. If the card holder notifies the library by telephone, it will make arrangements for the messenger service, using its own employés when possible and adding the fee to the current receipts, otherwise making use of the local district telegraph service. The minimum charge is carfare both ways, or ten cents, but this is increased for long distances. Mr. Bostwick writes, "The service is yet in the experimental stage. I do not anticipate that it

will ever be much used, but it appears quite clear that it is occasionally of the greatest value to users of the library; it requires no special preparation and involves the library in no expense whatever."

From Minneapolis has come the suggestion of book collection boxes, to be placed like the mail boxes at transfer corners and other traffic centers; into these boxes books to be returned may be dropped by readers, and collections made by the library at stated intervals. The plan is not yet in operation there.

The matter of a cheap library post has been discussed for the past twenty-five years; some concerted efforts have been made to obtain it, and bills to provide it have been repeatedly introduced in Congress, but so far unsuccessfully. The library post would offer a distributing agency of great importance for public library books, particularly in rural communities. Any lessening of the rates on the regular book post would be advantageous to libraries, as would the parcels-post legislation now pending (April 1911).

6. TOWNSHIP AND COUNTY LIBRARY SYSTEMS

Analogous to the city system are the township and county library systems which are being developed to meet the needs of the country districts, the public library of the principal town or of the county seat usually becoming the central library. There seem to be advantages in working with the township as the unit, as the system can be developed gradually, one township at a time, until it becomes a county system. The California plan for a county library system organized from the state library as the center gives promise of important development. The use of the book-wagon, which takes a traveling library from house to house, as in the Hagerstown, Md., County free library, and in some parts of Wisconsin, is an interesting feature of rural extension.

7. LIBRARY-EXTENSION PROBLEMS OF A CITY SYSTEM

In the administration of a branch-library system, certain questions of policy assume large importance as the system expands, inasmuch as they vitally affect the running machinery of the system and its resulting efficiency. Only the general tendency in regard to these questions is here indicated, all branch problems being modified by local conditions:

a) To what extent shall the book collections of the branches be kept uniform? A nucleus of general reference works, standard and popular books, and a small proportion of current additions can be duplicated advantageously for all branches alike; beyond this, differentiation in book selection is often desirable, for the class of people served by one branch may be utterly unlike that of another in education, environment, literary, and practical interests. Experience shows that in opening a branch in a community unaccustomed to books and libraries, it is sometimes well to begin with only the lighter and more popular books, adding the standards, the so-called "books of power" as the readers are prepared to use them. Much greater uniformity can be maintained to advantage in the juvenile collections than in those for adult readers.

b) Shall the selection, buying, and cataloging of the books be done at the branches or at the central library? Selection by the branch librarian, subject to approval or revision at the central library, with centralization of the buying and also largely of the cataloging of the books, seem to effect the greatest economy, while insuring uniformity where essential, and permitting differentiation where advisable.

c) Shall there be supervision from the central library? Yes, general supervision always to the extent of maintaining uniformity of standards, while allowing sufficient freedom for initiative on the part of the branch librarians. In the case of a large system there may be more or less departmental supervision also; the latter is doubtless most necessary in the chil-

dren's work, because of its relatively greater importance at the branches.

In general, uniformity is important in all matters affecting the public use of the library; also in all of the routine and systematic work in which such uniformity makes for ease and economy in the training and transferring of assistants. Less centralization and greater local control may be desirable in cases where separate libraries have been merged into a system as branches.

The evolution of a single library in a growing town into a library system is frequently through a beginning with stations which grow into branches, necessitating only a gradual reorganization in methods; but the probable future development of a system should always be an important determining factor in decisions as to methods which would be affected. The following are points to be considered in the establishment of branches and other agencies, or in a comparative study of library systems; their number prevents much beyond outline treatment within the limits of this chapter, but many of them are covered with more detail elsewhere in the manual, or in articles named in the appended bibliography.

1. Number and size of branches.—Are these sufficient to meet the needs of all parts of the city adequately and impartially? Location of branches in relation to: (a) distance from central library and from other branches or distributing agencies; (b) local centers of population and business, car lines and car transfer centers; (c) classes of readers to be served, their nationalities, local industries, etc.; (d) liability of neighborhood to change in character. In general it may be said that the city which provides branch libraries not more than a mile apart is not in danger of overdoing its library facilities, while in the most densely populated parts of large cities two or three times as many may be needed. The working estimate has been made of one branch to every twenty-five to forty thousand

of the population; for outlying, scattered districts, even the minimum, twenty-five thousand, may be too large. A topographic map of the city divided into present and prospective library districts, showing population and nationalities in the districts, is an aid in the development and expansion of a city system. The testing of a location in temporary quarters before deciding on a permanent site and building is sometimes desirable; the moving of a branch has proved in more than one instance how greatly the location can affect the use of the library. In some parts of the country, the race-problem is one which materially affects the planning of a branch system.

2. Buildings, interior arrangement and equipment.—Are these so planned as to meet best the needs of the particular districts in which they are placed? As a branch collection should be kept a live working collection by periodical weeding out of superseded material for central storage or other disposal, less room is needed in a branch building than in the independent library for storage and work room; less is needed also for administration. In some places, the inclusion of living rooms for the janitor proves desirable. (See chap. x on Library architecture.)

3. Rules and regulations.—These should be such as to insure, so far as possible, equal privileges to all citizens; a uniform interpretation of the spirit and the letter of the rules is more difficult to maintain as the staff is scattered into widely differing centers and conditions.

4. Hours of opening; Sunday and holiday opening.—Are these the same for the entire system, or varied to meet local needs? Where conditions vary greatly in different parts of the city, a difference in hours may be more economical as well as more effective.

5. Size and organization of the branch staff; qualifications of staff (including special languages in foreign districts); methods of appointment, training, assignment of work, re-

ports on staff, grades, promotions, salaries, interchange of assistants, substitutes, staff meetings.—Appointments are usually best made to the service, assignments to specific branches being made by the librarian, in consultation with heads of departments and branches. Uniform standards of efficiency should be maintained while endeavoring to give each assistant scope for his best powers. (These topics are more fully discussed in chap. xii, Library administration.)

6. Cost of maintenance.—Are results commensurate with expenditures, in the system as a whole, and in each branch? Comparative branch reports and other tests of efficiency.

7. The annual budget.—Of what appropriations is it composed, how is it made up, and on what basis is the quota for each branch decided?

8. Book appropriation and purchase.—(a) Basis of distribution of book funds to central library and branches; (b) methods in selecting and ordering books; (c) number of volumes added annually, and average cost per volume; (d) extent of duplication; (e) accessioning and mechanical preparation of books centralized or done at branch? Great economy results from so organizing the processes of book-buying and much of the record preparation in a large system that the orders for duplication are received and handled together. The centralization of the mechanical preparation and such record work as does not lend itself to duplicating processes is open to question; if it can be done at the branch as “busy work” by the branch staff, it may be more economically done there.

9. Classification and cataloging of: (a) central collections; (b) branch collections. Branch records for central library, official catalog, and union shelf-list. Use of Library of Congress cards, and of duplicating processes in cataloging. Printed catalogs and finding-lists.

10. Access to shelves of: (a) central library; (b) branches. Access to shelves in branches is very general in this country,

even where the central library has closed shelves. Arrangement for safeguarding open-shelf collections. Annual withdrawals and book losses; methods of inventory and withdrawal; frequency of weeding out of open-shelf collections and basis for decisions; mobility of collections. Records which permit of easy transfer of books from one collection to another are most desirable where there is the possibility of a change in the character of readers and the resulting needs, such as is frequently and rapidly occurring in some of the foreign districts of the larger cities.

11. Seating capacity of reading-rooms for adults at branches; average number of readers daily; character of readers.—Extent to which reading-rooms are supplied with periodicals and newspapers, including those in foreign languages; uniformity or variation in periodical lists throughout the system; interchange of periodicals. Are reading-rooms supplied with a collection of standard authors; size of collection; are specially good editions selected for it; are duplicate copies kept for circulation; and does reading-room use lead to issue of duplicates for home use?

12. Branch reference work: (*a*) character, extent, and degree of uniformity of reference collections; (*b*) amount and character of reference work done; (*c*) methods of supplementing the branch reference collections with material from the central library and other branches; (*d*) special reference work for literary, debating, and study clubs, schools, missionary societies, clergymen, etc.; (*e*) methods employed to interest branch readers in the larger resources of the central reference collection, and to send them to central library when desirable. Reference work by telephone.

13. Children's work in branches: (*a*) organization in relation to other work of branch and to children's work of the system as a whole; (*b*) training of children's librarians; (*c*) seating capacity of children's rooms and average number of readers daily; (*d*) class of children served; (*e*) size of juvenile

book collection; number of titles, and extent of duplication; (f) volume and character of circulation; (g) discipline; (h) story-hour and children's club work; bulletins and posters. (See chap. xxix, Library work with children.)

14. Loan work in branch system: (a) method of registering branch borrowers; central or local registration; union register, black-list and guarantor's list at central library; address register; transfers; (b) can branch borrowers draw books from central library or from other branches (1) on regular card? (2) on special or universal card? (c) can books drawn from one place be returned at another, and if so, methods employed? (d) size and character of branch circulating-collections in relation to number of readers and circulation; (e) books in foreign languages at branches, and method of selecting these; (f) number of books from central collection loaned through branches; (g) method of ordering and filling branch orders for loans from central library; (h) inter-branch loans; (i) frequency of delivery, and method and cost of transportation; (j) methods of keeping branch staff and patrons informed of contents of and additions to central collection; (k) precautions against contagious diseases.

15. Messenger service and transportation, methods, comparative cost, and efficiency: (a) of delivery by boy on street-car, bicycle, motorcycle, wagon, or automobile; (b) packing of books, in paper-wrapped parcels, flexible telescope bags, boxes, chests, or trunks.

16. Bookbinding and repair: (a) Is there general supervision? (b) by a specialist? (c) what minor repairs are done at the branches? (d) by whom?

17. Supplies, building superintendence, repairs, janitorial work.—To what extent are these centralized? Methods.

18. Auditoriums and clubrooms, their use and correlation to work of libraries.—Lecture courses. Library clubs. Civic coöperation is an important factor, as shown in New

York, where many of the free lecture courses of the Board of Education are given in the lecture-rooms of the branch libraries; and also in the combination field-house and branch library as developed in the Chicago public library system, where the assembly hall and clubroom facilities are closely interwoven with the library work proper, but where are also centered many social features with which it is not possible for the ordinary branch library to be in close touch. The use of the assembly halls and clubrooms by neighborhood organizations, as in St. Louis and Cleveland, strengthens the social relations of the libraries with the community.

19. Other extension work at branches: (*a*) relations with schools and other institutions; (*b*) methods of advertising; (*c*) exhibits. To what extent are these planned or controlled from the central building?

20. Stations and other minor agencies: (*a*) number, kind, distribution, and housing; (*b*) relation to central library and to branches; (*c*) coöperation with other institutions, as schools, factories, clubs, settlement houses, park centers, playgrounds, public bath-houses, churches, etc.; (*d*) character and cost of service; (*e*) methods employed; (*f*) standard of reading maintained as compared with that of central and branch libraries.

21. The proportion of total circulation of the system through: (*a*) the branches; (*b*) stations; (*c*) other agencies. Comparative cost and effectiveness of various kinds of distributing agencies.

22. Reports and accounts of system; extent of centralization and methods employed.—Auditing. Blanks and forms. Printed reports.

23. Nomenclature of the system.—Some existing differences in practice are suggested by the following synonymous terms: central library, main library; director, librarian-in-chief, librarian; sub-branch, small branch; deposit station, distributing station; service station, station in charge of library employés.

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XVI

BOOK SELECTION

ELVA L. BASCOM
Wisconsin Free Library Commission

OUTLINE

- Introduction
- Principles of selection
 - The book
 - Tests for books of information
 - Tests for books of inspiration
 - Tests for fiction
 - The reader
- Practice of selection
 - Use of printed aids
 - The book committee
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- Aids in book selection
 - Advice from individuals
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INTRODUCTION

The most important work of the public library, the selection of its books, is often given little thought and in many libraries is relegated to the odds and ends of time left over from the day's routine or crowded into the last day or two before a book order is to be made up. That any system should be employed

in making the selection is not recognized by many otherwise excellent librarians, yet one will be found to exist in libraries which are most successful in meeting their people's needs with an adequate supply of good books. It is, nevertheless, the work in a library which lends itself to a system less easily than any other. This is accounted for by the two constantly changing elements on which selection depends, the readers and the books. A title may be held for many months until the expenditure is warranted, only to find that a better book is obtainable; or, when the purchasable book appears the need may no longer exist. The librarian can be truly called successful in book selection who knows, at a given time, what he can afford to buy on a subject, how to select the best for his community, whether the demand justifies the necessary expenditure, and when the need has passed.

With the enormous and constantly increasing output of books, the problem of selection becomes more difficult each year. Add to that the growing tendency among authors toward specialization, the ever-widening range of types of books—from mere compilation to special pleas—the large number of books on questions of the hour, the increased practice of revising and enlarging magazine literature for book publication, and the concession must be made that the librarian who selects for the average public library—often out of reach of the books themselves—can hardly have too many aids, provided they are reliable and he knows how to use them with discrimination.

PRINCIPLES OF SELECTION

A library should be built up according to a definite plan, to approach a certain ideal. Each book cannot, of course, be added solely to fit into that plan or ideal, and the growth of, or changes in, the community may wisely lead to a modification of it, but it should constantly be a controlling force in selection and should decide the question of purchase in cases of doubt.

"A building might be filled with books without there being a library. A collection of books is no more a library than a collection of lumber is a building or a collection of furniture constitutes a furnished home or a collection of pipes makes an organ. A library, however small, involves systematic selection and correlation of books. It must be built upon a plan and all materials that are to go into its making must be chosen to fit that plan, just as all the units that go to make up a house must be chosen to fit its plan. In a very small library, as in a very small house, the plan is very simple, but it is none the less essential."

The book.—As most public libraries are, however, striving to accomplish much the same purpose, there are certain principles of selection which are applicable to all of them.¹

1. Select books that will tend toward the development and enrichment of life.

Test a book by asking what its effect will be on the life of the community. "The function of the library is the development and enrichment of human life in the entire community by bringing to all the people the books that belong to them."—Mrs. Fairchild.

2. Let the basis of selection be positive, not negative.

If the best you can say for a book is that it will do no harm, question your need of it. Every book should be of actual service to somebody, in inspiration, information, or recreation.

3. Select books on subjects in which individuals and groups in the community have a natural interest.

4. Provide for all the people of the community, not merely for those who are enrolled as borrowers.

¹ Acknowledgment is due to Mrs. S. C. Fairchild, who formulated the first principles of selection for the New York State Library School, and to a very helpful article printed in *New York libraries* in May, 1914, "Outlines and references for library institutes: Stocking the library; part 1, Selecting books." The excerpts quoted above and later are taken from the latter.

MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY

5. So far as good books are obtainable and funds permit, represent in your selection every race, profession, trade, religious or political doctrine, interest, and local custom found in the community. Keep in mind, however, that the library is primarily an educational agent, and do not admit books containing harmful doctrines or teachings.

6. Select some books of permanent value, regardless of whether or not they will be much used.

The great classics and the more popular "standards" should be in every library. They give it dignity and worth, and gain for it the respect of the educated portion of the community. The expense is proportionately small, as they can be obtained in inexpensive editions. It is difficult to determine the current book that will have permanent value, except in the case of a few that are beyond question. Great discrimination is needed in selecting among recent publications those that are of no immediate interest to the community as a whole, but are the best presentations of important subjects. Some concessions should be made to the thinkers and leaders in the community, but not to the extent of depriving the general public of its rightful share of good reading.

7. Select some books to meet the needs of only a few persons if by so doing society at large will be benefited.

"The library benefits not only those who use it, but all who come into relations with those who use it."

8. Do not allow the selection to be influenced by the personal equation or fad of any single person or group of persons.

"Strong men or women in the community are apt to over-emphasize some subject, and, as they are apt to be on library book committees, this subject gets overemphasized in the library. Get something that these people want, but not all. Remember that quiet, unobtrusive people who are not interested in any 'movement' have just as much right to the benefit of library money as more aggressive, forthputting people."

9. Keep a just proportion in the collection as a whole.

Hold constantly in mind the fact that a library's value is as dependent on a well-balanced selection in the different classes as on a good supply of fiction and children's books. The prefaces of the *A.L.A. Catalogs* give tables which will serve roughly as a guide, but they should not be slavishly adhered to. Make a general rule, then modify it as may seem wise.

10. Of sectarian books get only those that are truly representative and likely to be used by the general reader or at least by a considerable number of readers, and treat all sects alike.

The same rule applies in general to textbooks, law books, medical books, or books devoted strictly to any profession. "The public library is not to supply the specialist with his regular tools, but only with the general literature of his subject."

11. As a rule, prefer an inferior book that will be read to a superior book which will not be read.

This is not always a safe rule to follow, since the inferior book may be of questionable worth, or interest in the subject may force readers to the better book if the poorer one is unobtainable.

12. Do not reject a book on the opinion of a few narrow-minded people who think it harmful or even bad.

The book which provokes thought, or even arouses opposition, regarding any of the constantly changing concepts of thought or springs of action is to be welcomed provided it does not seek to destroy the principles on which our civilization is based. Have a definite standard of admission on mooted subjects and keep within it except in the case of books which, despite over-radical tendencies, present a constructive plan for needed reforms.

13. Do not sacrifice the interests of the student to those of the home reader.

The library should care for the person who uses reference books either for study or for unrelated information as carefully as for the one who reads only at home.

14. Do not strive for completeness. Select the best books on a subject, the best by an author. Do not get all of a series unless their merit or your need warrants it.

15. Study your community and compare its needs with its demands. Welcome its recommendations, but use your judgment in following them. Be a leader, a guide, rather than a follower.

Besides the principles which define a library's policy in the matter of book selection in general, the following specific questions will aid in deciding the value of a single book in a library. They are submitted only as suggestive of the sort of examination any book can be given, and make no pretense to completeness.

Tests for books of information.—*Subject-matter.*—Is it a survey of a whole subject, or a part of it? Does it present theory or practice? Is it a history of the subject or a discussion of modern conditions? Is it a statement of facts or an argument? Is it the pronouncement of a man of authority, or a compilation of data from many sources? Does it relate to foreign conditions or to American, or does it cover both? Is it brief, exhaustive, or neither? If selective, is it well balanced and representative? These and other equally pertinent questions which arise as to the text should be considered solely with respect to the actual needs of the library for which the selection is being made. Unless care is exercised it is very easy to get books which treat only of the theory or history of a subject, when the demand is largely for books relating to practice or current conditions.

Authority.—What are the author's qualifications? What has been his education and experience? Has he used source material? If secondary material, is it reliable? Does he understand thoroughly the period, facts, or theories with which he deals? Has he any bias?

Treatment.—Is the treatment concrete or abstract? Is it technical, semi-technical, scholarly, or popular? Is it a technical subject treated in such a popular manner as to be worthless? Is it designed for advanced or beginning students or the general reader?

Date.—Is it an old book? If so, does its date give it value or make it worthless? Is it valuable as the latest word on the subject? Or is the subject it treats so new that any book would be too slight to have value?

General make-up.—All books of information should have a table of contents and an adequate index. There has been great improvement in these aids to the quick and exact use of a book, and very few publishers send out important books without them. There is still considerable room for reform in the quality of the index, which is sometimes found in the test of actual use to be only a makeshift. Where the nature of the book makes it valuable, a bibliography, or, better, a carefully selected list of recommended books, should be included. The "list of books consulted by the author" as usually printed is of doubtful value, since it includes many titles which have no direct relation to the subject of his own book; such a list should be culled, not printed complete.

There should be illustrations if the nature of the book gives them value. They should be pertinent to the text, well reproduced, and with definite, adequate legends. But no illustrations at all are preferable to those that are false or misleading. In some books of travel and description, and in many technical and scientific works, illustrations are often as valuable as, or even more valuable than, the text, and their omission is sufficient to condemn the book. Certain classes of books demand maps, such as histories, accounts of explorations, and routes of travel in less-known parts of the world. In others charts are more illuminating than many pages of text to show advance, development, comparison, etc. A complete list of all such illustrative

material should precede the text, as a convenience to the reader and in collation.

Physical make-up.—The typography is the most important feature of a book's physical make-up. The rule among librarians awake to the evils of badly printed books used to be, without cause for exception, to buy no book that was printed in very small type or that was not leaded (space between the lines). The rule regarding type no longer holds good, since there are now excellent, clear-cut makes of the smaller types which when properly leaded and spaced make an attractive, readable page. There is an increasing tendency to use the larger types with confusing lack of space between words and also between the lines. The result is a page that is far more tiring to the eye than the well-leaded and spaced smaller type produces. The quality, tone, and finish of the paper also affect very largely the clearness of the page. A cream-tinted, dull-finished paper of sufficient thickness to permit no penetration of the printing on the other side offers the best combination. (See chapter xxxii, "Library printing," by F. K. Walter, for more about typographical merits and defects.)

Binding and covers are beyond this brief survey. The quality of the binding processes is important, since the life of the book depends largely on them. The character of the covers is less important, except in children's books, where an attractive appearance means much in recommending a book. (See chapter xxvi, "Bookbinding," by A. L. Bailey, for a description of the traits of good library binding.)

The physical make-up of a volume cannot weigh very heavily beside the question of the text itself, especially in books of information. Where there is a choice of volumes, however, and the librarian is able to examine the books themselves, these matters should be taken into account.

Tests for books of inspiration.—Discussion of the qualities an inspirational work should have would require more space than

can be given to a single chapter. The following questions are intended to be only suggestive:

1. Does the work show any degree of creative power?
2. To what extent does it reflect the author's personality?
3. Is it sincere?
4. Has it originality of conception? of expression?
5. Does it appeal primarily to the intellect or the emotions?

If to the latter, has it self-restraint?

6. Is it of purely human interest, or has it also literary, artistic, religious, ethical, or philosophic value?
7. Is the style a help or a hindrance to the thought?
8. Is the form appropriate to the thought?
9. Has it charm, beauty, color, imagery, melody?
10. Has it vitality? Will it endure as a permanent contribution to literature?

Tests for fiction.¹—In addition to the tests above:

1. Is the life it pictures true to nature? Or is it sensational? melodramatic? exaggerated? distorted? morbid?
2. Are the characters alive? Does the psychology of their acts ring true? Are they worth delineating? Do they throw any new light on the workings of the human mind and heart?
3. Is the plot original? hackneyed? ingenious? probable? involved? simple? Is it successfully worked out? Does it hold the interest?
4. Does it blur the hard-won line between right and wrong?
5. If it depicts sin, is the author's attitude moral? immoral? unmoral?
6. Is its spirit that of good-will toward men? Does it engender a more kindly feeling toward human nature?
7. Does it leave a sense of completeness and satisfaction? Does it stimulate, inspire, or merely amuse?

The reader as an element in selection.—A librarian may be a discriminating critic of books, with a fine appreciation

¹ Partly taken from Shuman's *How to judge a book*.

of good literature and good workmanship, a keen scent for the false and superficial, and equally keen pleasure in able scholarship and clear analysis, but he must also be a lover and student of people in order to select books successfully. He needs to study his community as thoroughly as the successful merchant who buys clothing to suit its varied tastes. A detailed knowledge of its institutions, nationalities, religions, degrees of intelligence and education, moral and social standards—everything that indicates the nature, characteristics, and interests of the people the library aims to serve—should be as much a part of his working equipment as a knowledge of cataloging and classification. Without this grasp of the community life and intelligence it is not possible to make a wise selection among a dozen, or even six books, on any subject which has a fairly large and varied literature. When a librarian asks a library commission to recommend two or three of the best books on a subject “for her library,” the question immediately arises: What class of readers does the librarian intend to satisfy with these books? In a small library, at least, the two factors in the problem, the book and the reader, can never be separated. For this reason the best book on a subject, intrinsically considered, may be the worst for a certain library to buy, if the test of a book is the good it may do in a community. The phrase “the best book” can seldom be used unmodified without being misleading. For instance, the work on the Panama Canal called the best in the technology department of the Carnegie library of Pittsburgh would certainly not be the best for a tiny village on a western prairie, or even for a cultured eastern town. This wide difference in the intelligence, training, and needs of our public-library users renders general lists of recommended books indifferent aids, however carefully selected and annotated. Their selection must of necessity be based largely on inherent or comparative value; the touchstone—the community the list is to serve—cannot be applied.

It is of greater importance that the librarian should know his people than that he should know personally the books they may desire. Some one can usually be found, in the state library commission or elsewhere, who can inform him concerning the books, but the librarian must be depended on for the information necessary to select those that will fit his readers.

The activities, interests, institutions, and public spirit of a community should be reflected with some degree of completeness on the shelves of its public library. This is sometimes an unfair test of the librarian's ability, owing to the short life of the library, a paucity of funds, incapable predecessors, etc. but as a rule, if such subjects as moral education, child labor, women in industry, municipal government, civic improvement, public health and sanitation, and other matters of special interest in our wide-awake towns are represented by only a few stray titles or not at all, it is safe to conclude that the librarian is not living up to his opportunity; that he is probably following the line of least resistance by adding only to the obvious and already well-represented classes of history, travel, and literature, forgetting or ignoring the fact that he is thus serving only a part—and the most easily satisfied part—of his community, that he is not “bringing to all the people the books that belong to them.” When he does that, every trade and industry, every homely, healthful, or artistic after-hour employment, every worthy club and society, will be reflected on the shelves of the library.

PRACTICE OF SELECTION

Granted that a librarian appreciates the need of definite principles of selection and has a thorough grasp of them, his community will not profit from them unless he is willing to give considerable time and thought to the actual work of selection. This should be accepted as a regular part of the day's work, not considered an added burden to be postponed until necessity forces it into the schedule, to the detriment of other duties.

Use of printed aids.—The first step in the routine of selection is to decide what aids are to be depended on for information about current books and about the older literature. This decision depends largely on the size of the library and the amount of the book fund. With a collection of ten thousand books or less and an appropriation of \$1,000 or less, the average library can manage very well with the two *A.L.A. Catalogs* and the *A.L.A. Booklist*, supplemented by the assistance obtainable from the state library commission. Libraries larger than this and having a larger appropriation will, as a rule, need a larger list to select from. This is especially true for the older books, since the two *Catalogs* represent a much more limited selection than does the *Booklist*. Many libraries find the addition of the volumes of the *Book Review Digest* sufficient. Its value for selection is increased since the inclusion of a subject index. Librarians of other libraries no larger in size think they cannot do effective work without the *U.S. Catalog* and the *Cumulative Book Index* also. This equipment entails a considerable expenditure, and should be undertaken only after a careful canvass of the situation. There is much to be said, however, in favor of as large a supply of bibliographic tools as can be afforded, since the librarian who takes the trouble to find exactly what he needs by use of them can usually borrow what he is not able to buy, either from the state commission or from another library. Few libraries today are dependent solely on what they can afford to buy. Besides these publications there are many other useful aids, as the *Classified catalogues* of the Carnegie library of Pittsburgh, the New York State library *Best books* lists, Sonnenschein's *Best books*, etc. (see List of aids, p. 27). All lists should be consulted with a realization of their limitations or bias; e.g., the three Pittsburgh catalogs represent the gradual growth of a single large library striving to meet the needs of its own city; in using them one should keep in mind the fact that many of the books in the earlier catalogs are now

out of date and perhaps replaced by better ones, that many titles are not suited to the small library, etc. In selecting books other than current, no title should be chosen, no matter how excellent the list containing it or how favorable the note accompanying it, without careful search in later or current lists to ascertain if it has not been supplanted by a better book, or has not been issued in a new edition.

For the selection of current literature the *Booklist* answers the need of most small libraries. Where a larger list is wanted, the *Book Review Digest* is usually added next. Many librarians do not feel satisfied without the longer reviews in the *Dial* and *Nation*. Many, too, feel the need of the more complete and frequent news of books that is supplied in the *Publishers' Weekly*, the *New York Times Review of Books*, the *Boston Transcript*, and other newspapers. To these the libraries of 25,000 and over usually add the *Cumulative Book Index*, the *Athenaeum* or *Spectator* or both, and perhaps one of the English trade journals—the *Bookseller* or *Publishers' Circular*; the former is perhaps in most general favor.

The lists of additions in the bulletins of the large public libraries, which are sometimes followed closely by small libraries in the same section, are helpful only when used with discrimination. They vary greatly in value, the selection in some being excellent and well balanced, in some very uneven, and in others decidedly poor as a whole. In most of them there is no way of determining what books have been chosen as valuable additions, what bought to meet an urgent need regardless of inherent value, and what added as gifts (sometimes worthless). In some, new and old books are not distinguished.

Book committee.—The usual order of procedure in selection is somewhat as follows: The librarian collects the titles for consideration by the board or the book committee. The latter is preferable, as the board is likely to be too large a body to consider and agree on a list of books with wisdom and

dispatch. This committee should be composed of educated people, but people who are in actual touch with the life of the community and who appreciate the responsibility and honor of acting for it. The school superintendent is usually a member, and frequently a valuable one. The membership should never be composed wholly of women, nor, if possible to avoid it, wholly of men, and none of them should be ruled by hobbies. Through his thorough knowledge of his library and its resources and his ability to give good reason for the selection of books he submits for approval, the librarian should command the confidence of the committee, and he should attend its meetings without question.

Book fund.—The book fund is greatly affected by the size of the library. It is relatively larger in the smaller library, since the cost of service is less. About 20 per cent of the library appropriation is perhaps near the average amount spent for books. Of this not more than one-fourth should be spent for fiction and one-fourth (or more) for children's books. This leaves about half the book fund for reference and classed books and periodicals, which is none too much considering their greater cost.

The fund should be divided into fairly equal portions and spent at regular intervals. The frequency of buying depends on the size of the fund, on the size of the library, and on the attitude of the readers. A library spending \$200 or less a year hardly needs to buy oftener than once in three or four months. The majority of libraries buy monthly; if near a large city even small libraries are inclined to buy oftener. Frequent purchases keep interest alive, but, on the other hand, they are more expensive (as to time and transportation charges) and tend to lower the standard of selection.

Collecting and sifting titles for purchase.—The mechanical routine of selection is simple. Current lists and reviews are systematically checked, chosen titles (author, brief title, pub-

lisher, price, and source of information, note or review) are copied on cards of uniform size, or, better still if there are notes, the entries themselves are clipped and mounted on cards. A tray or filing box should be provided for this purpose. Books on special subjects or to meet special needs, new editions and replacements are added to this "possible purchase file." It can be kept in author order or classed according to the apportionment of the book fund: Class books, Fiction, Reference, Children's books, Foreign books.

When a book order is to be prepared, this accumulation of titles is sorted by subject and carefully sifted by consulting available reviews and by taking into account immediate needs and the amount of money available. They are compared with the catalog and shelf-list to avoid duplication of titles, and some sort of balance is attained between subjects. After the order has been made up, the withdrawn titles can be returned to their original file to await the next order or they can be arranged behind guides according to the decision made about them; e.g., the next to buy, desirable but too expensive at present, buy second hand, discarded, etc.

Readers should be encouraged to recommend books for purchase, and cards should be furnished for this purpose. To discourage indiscriminate requests, a reason for the purchase of the book should be required and any favorable information about it solicited. If the library finds it unwise to buy a book so requested, the reader should be given the reason for the decision.

Free material.—The librarian who practices economy in book selection is constantly alert to discover the good material which can be acquired free of cost or for very little. The following classes are only suggestive:

1. Public documents: city, state, and federal. Among them is some of the most valuable material a library can possess. Often a government bureau is the first to publish a

bulletin on a new subject. The small library cannot make room for many long sets, but it cannot afford to neglect the current output of all but the more technical departments and bureaus. In larger libraries it should be a matter of pride to make easily available every federal, state, and city report or bulletin which could possibly be useful. The *Monthly Catalogue* and the *Price lists* on various subjects that are compiled from time to time in the Superintendent of Documents Office are worth the time it takes the busiest librarian to scan them. Many useful sets and single documents are noted in chapter xxiii, "Government documents," and in the A.L.A. Publishing Board Handbook 7, "U.S. Government documents in small libraries."

2. Railroad and steamship "literature." While not always strictly reliable, this material is often a very ready help. If the text is not needed, the illustrations are useful in the picture collection.

3. Philanthropic, charitable, civic, and political organizations' publications. Some of the first and best surveys of new movements are obtained from these sources, and they are more convenient and usually more reliable than magazine articles relating to them.

Quick vs. deliberate buying—The wise librarian has also learned to question whether or not his need for a new book is urgent. While it is often true that half the value of a book lies in having it when it is first wanted, it is almost as often the case that waiting will not lessen its usefulness. There are three reasons for waiting: (1) the book may not after all prove a worthy purchase when the opinion of expert reviewers (usually late) is obtainable; (2) a better one may follow close on the heels of the one chosen; this is frequently the case in new subjects; (3) a year after publication a larger discount is obtainable, or the book may be purchased at half-price or less through second-hand or remainder dealers, or through advertisement.

Reasons (1) and (2) bring up the matter of immediate (or quick) versus deliberate buying, as to which every librarian must be his own judge. It is no doubt necessary in some libraries to buy promptly—at least in some classes of books—but it is difficult to believe that a group of fairly intelligent people who have confidence in their librarian will not wait with a reasonable degree of patience until the value of a book can be ascertained, especially if they understand that a worthless or unusable book deprives them of the good one which might have been bought in its place. The quality of the selection in small libraries, especially in fiction, is greatly improved where the librarian has assumed this reasonable attitude on the part of his readers and has won them to it.

The small library does not reap the benefit it might from the second-hand agencies. A great saving can sometimes be effected through them if the librarian knows just what books he wants. The two difficulties are that the catalogs sent out contain all sorts of literature, making an actual knowledge of the books essential, and that the cost of transportation may make a small order cost as much as if bought through the regular trade. In the case of an expensive reference work, or one that is out of print, an advertisement in the *Publishers' Weekly* "Books wanted" column sometimes brings a copy when the second-hand dealers have failed to secure it. (See chapter xvii, "Order and accession department," by F. F. Hopper.)

The librarian who needs to economize will not buy subscription books. While it is true that some valuable works are published in this way, they are a very small part of the whole output and they can usually be obtained later in the regular trade or from second-hand dealers, often at a great reduction. As a rule, a subscription work is inferior in text, binding, and make-up to the ordinary book and far more costly.

Selection of periodicals.—Closely allied with the problem of the choice of books is that of the selection of periodicals.

In these days of a surfeit of popular magazines even the large library must select with some care. In the smaller library the problem is a serious one. Even more than in the case of books, its solution depends on local conditions. As a rule, however, the following requirements should be met with each periodical.

1. It should be of as high standard as will be read.
2. It should offend no part of the community by its unfairness.
3. It should, if possible, be of permanent value and worth binding.
4. It should be within the means of the library.
5. The selection as a whole should cover all the important interests of the community and meet its most pressing needs.
6. It should not include periodicals which are taken in the majority of the homes unless the fund is large, or the periodical of special reference value.
7. Partisan or religious periodicals representing a single church should not be purchased. If room can be given them the official organs of well-recognized societies and denominations should be accepted as gifts. If this is done, make an effort to have the collection represent the majority of the community.

Various groups of selected periodicals are given in the articles cited in the "References" given at the end of this chapter.

Selection of children's books.—The choice of books for children is a special field, and does not come within the province of this chapter. It is discussed briefly in chapter xxix, "Library work with children," by Frances J. Olcott, and a list of books and articles is appended. The best lists for use in building up a collection of children's literature are cited under "Aids in book selection."

EDITIONS

In the public library of any size the question of editions is of sufficient importance to warrant much closer study than it

usually receives; in the small library hardly too much attention can be given it. Here every book, where there can be so few, should be made to count—should be frequently in demand by a reader.

The word "edition" is loosely employed in two ways: (1) for a classic or standard work in which the subject-matter is unchanged, the variation from the earlier editions or edition consisting in its physical make-up, with perhaps the addition of an introduction, notes, or appendixes; (2) for a republication of a work, usually of fairly modern origin, in which the text has been changed and enlarged to a greater or less extent, in order to bring it into line with present-day thought or to insert later facts or events—to "bring it up to date," in library terms. The word "reprint" is often used synonymously with "edition," but a reprint means to publishers the reprinting from the same type and without change, except for textual errors.

The long-held idea that the classic and standard authors should be bought as cheaply as possible because they are so little read is a mistaken one, at least with respect to those of more popular character. Even the small library must have a few books which are very seldom called for and which may well be bought in fairly cheap editions, but there is a large body of standard literature—especially the novels—which will be read almost as eagerly as the newest books if presented in the same kind of dress, with good paper, legible type, satisfactory illustrations, and attractive covers. Even readers who know the charm of Jane Austen, Charles Lamb, Thackeray, and Dickens (unknown authors to many young people except for painful memories of English lessons) are repelled by the ugly, unreadable editions which are to be found on many library shelves. In recognition of this need there has been in recent years a considerable output of handsome editions. Some of the money all but wasted in mediocre fiction might well be diverted into this channel. Choose editions which are illustrated if the

illustrations are not of the impossible type, and, if necessary, sacrifice a strong binding to attractive covers.

If attractive editions are worth buying for adults, they surely are for children. The average adult has opportunities outside the library to see and enjoy fine books; he may even satisfy his love for them by occasionally buying one. Many children know no better books than those they handle at school and in the public library. How is a respect for the dignity and value of literature to take root if they see nothing superior to the little cheap editions with which some children's rooms are filled? These are necessary for circulation, but every classic approved for children's reading should be represented by at least one copy of a satisfactory edition—well printed, well illustrated, well bound—and frequent opportunity should be given the children to read them.

There is an increasing tendency among publishers to issue frequent editions of books on growing or rapidly changing subjects. In many instances the changes and additions are important; in many more they are too slight to warrant the replacing of the older edition, except in large libraries or in case the subject is so important as to demand the latest information. Much depends on the character of the use of the book in the individual library. In the case of a popular subject, the periodical literature will usually be found to bring it to date satisfactorily enough for the average reader. The incorporation of valuable new material or the changing of statistical data, as after a new census, often makes a new edition practically a necessity. There are doubtless hundreds of persons daily gathering data from books in our public libraries which have not been according to facts for ten, twenty, or even thirty years. If such books are not replaced, they should be discarded or plainly labeled as out of date.

As a rule, expensive editions should not be bought. Occasional exceptions should, however, be made where the book

fund allows it. Even a few handsome volumes, or substantial, well-bound sets, give a library a charm and a look of distinction that is too often lacking, and help to create a love for books. In our fine new Carnegie libraries there is frequently a sad contrast between the smart, shining equipment and the books which are its sole excuse for being. It is usually in the fine arts collection that a librarian finds excuse for indulging in a few beautiful books, but every lover of good literature would like to see its great leaders—past and present—more worthily clothed.

On the other hand, there are many books which, issued first in expensive form, are as useful in the much cheaper one which follows in a few weeks or months. The difference is usually only in paper, process or amount of illustration, and binding.

Books issued in impractical white or light bindings should not be bought. If good public-library material, they will usually appear in appropriate binding in the course of time.

PUBLISHERS

The librarian who has a good knowledge of publishing houses, their history and present status, has a great advantage in book selection over the one to whom the name of a house means nothing, or at most a magazine or single type of book. It is still true, despite recent changes, that as a whole the output of each of the older houses has certain characteristics so distinctive that those with long experience can usually name their books on sight. They can usually also name the strong points and weaknesses which are instinctively associated with each publisher. There are, of course, exceptions, and as a whole the boundaries between publishers, especially as to classes of subjects handled, are rapidly disappearing. We can no longer say that such and such a New England author's books must have been published by Houghton Mifflin, that Appleton "carries" all the good popular science, that Scribner imports the art books,

etc. There have been some startling innovations of late in houses the heretofore strong family resemblance of whose books gives one the feeling that these newcomers are unwelcome changelings.

While it is not possible for any one who is not constantly handling a fair proportion of a house's output to follow its development (or changes), every librarian should try to gain a knowledge of two things regarding the forty or fifty publishers who print most of the current books from which the average library selects; these are: the subjects in which they specialize, and the relative rank of their books as to their mechanical processes. Of two books on radium of seemingly even value, the one published by a house having a long record for its good scientific publications will probably be preferred. Likewise of two books on any subject which, from all available information, differ little in textual value, the choice naturally falls on the one which is printed better and is likely to wear longer. Much of this information can be gained by constant observation and comparison of new books and by study of publishers' catalogs. It is one, but not the most important one, of the many good reasons for a librarian forming the habit of visiting large bookstores at as frequent intervals as possible. Even if the distance is too great to admit of such a visit more than once a year, it is well worth some sacrifice of vacation pleasure to accomplish it.

AIDS IN BOOK SELECTION

The statement is quite safe that the majority of librarians are too far removed from book centers to enable them to examine new books before making their selection. But even the librarian who has access to the new books is often at a loss to decide on the merits of publications in subjects of which he has no special knowledge. In the average public library he has too little time to devote to the book side of his work to keep pace

with the subjects with which he has some familiarity, much less to acquire a knowledge of the new ones which arise sufficient to make a wise selection in its literature. Only in the large libraries, where special departments with trained people at their heads and throughout the staff are possible, is the work of book selection carried on with independence from outside aid; and here the work is less that of selection, on the whole, than of collection. Hence there is absolute necessity for possessing as many aids as it is possible to have for acquiring reliable information about current literature. Help in selecting the older literature is also needed, in forming collections for new libraries, and in building up weak collections in libraries already organized.

Advice from individuals.—This help is acquired through several different channels. The most valuable to the small library usually is, or should be, the personal assistance of a member of the state library commission or a fellow-librarian who knows the principles of selection and the books, and knows also the community sufficiently well to adapt their selection to its needs. The second-best aid should be the persons in the community who have a fundamental knowledge of a subject and keep themselves thoroughly informed of its literature; such people as the ministers, the school superintendent and principals, the heads of large industries or their assistants, professional men who know the general literature of their subjects, women who are leaders in educational and social work, etc. Many larger libraries have a "book board" composed of such citizens, into whose hands is given the task of selection, subject sometimes to the revision of the librarian, or the board of trustees. The librarian in even the small town should utilize the special knowledge that is available among its citizens, but will need to scrutinize carefully the resulting recommendations. It is difficult for experts to acquire the unbiased viewpoint of the public library, to free themselves of the belief that the literature

of their own subject is the most important to add. If titles submitted for purchase are not pruned, therefore, there will almost unfailingly result an over-supply of books which as a whole are useful to only a small group of readers.

Printed lists.—In the average small library, “Book selection aids” mean neither of these two just discussed, but the printed lists published by the A.L.A. Publishing Board and the library commissions. In these the selection is made from the viewpoint of the small or medium-sized library, and the annotation, when there is any, aims to give the information necessary to make a closer selection possible. Such annotation, to be most helpful, should have the following qualities: It should give an unbiased statement of the book’s value, authority, scope, treatment, point of view, and style, and should indicate its special virtues or deficiencies. It should be written with the sole purpose of enabling the librarian to decide, without examination of the book itself, whether or not he should buy it and to what class of readers it will make an appeal. To be of the greatest value, sometimes to be of any value, it should make a definite comparison with earlier books on the subject.

It takes time to write a just, discriminating, and yet comprehensive note, but better a dozen of this kind than fifty of the sort known as publishers’ notices. These are written to aid the sale of a book and, therefore, must be considered biased. The notes from many houses are helpful in giving information regarding the book’s content, point of view, and treatment, and also the author’s ability to write it, but at its best the publisher’s note emphasizes a book’s strong features and ignores its weak ones; at its worst, even its weak features are made to pose as shining virtues. The public-library selection cannot be made wisely on such incomplete or prejudiced information, yet there are still librarians to be found who buy regularly from publishers’ and booksellers’ announcements.

The chief printed aids in book selection are too familiar to need description. They are listed at the end of this chapter.

Book reviews.—There is still another aid in selection and one which is doubtless consulted more than all others, if all classes of libraries are taken into account, and that is the book review. Its importance warrants a fuller consideration than its imitator, the publishers' notice.

The book reviews of today fall roughly into two groups: those that treat a book as a contribution to literature, science, or the arts, and those that treat it as a piece of news. The reviews in the literary, scientific, and technical periodicals are, or should be, of the first class, those in the newspapers and magazines (with a few exceptions) are of the second class. The latter review may be as scholarly in diction as the former, but it is largely descriptive in character, the tone is usually laudatory, and no attempt is made at criticism. The reviewer who treats a book as a contribution to literature usually shows some earmarks of scholarship, a sense of responsibility to the task in hand, and some understanding of, and more than a perfunctory interest in, the subject under discussion. He sometimes even gives his reader a fair idea of the book, but this is not to be expected. He is more certain to give his own idea of the subject in hand and his conception of the proper way to treat it—which sometimes is illuminating and sometimes is not.

Both these kinds of reviews are useful in case one does not take the first class too seriously and does not fail to consider the latter as news—placing it in the same category as the publishers' notices. The news review often gives more actual information as to the subject-matter of a book, and is written more nearly from the point of view of the average reader, than the scholarly review. Herein lies its usefulness, but unfortunately the librarian sometimes fails to wait for the latter (and it is often a long and trying wait) to make sure of the book's actual worth.

There are no wholly reliable book reviews from the librarian's point of view, which must be somewhat at variance with the expert's or college professor's point of view, and very different from that of the magazine and newspaper hackwriter. The lack of balance or perspective, or the inaccuracies that ban a book for the student may not affect its value for public-library uses (although they sometimes do), while the exhaustive analyses and subtle reasonings that make a book a source of true joy to the scholar may render it useless to the average reader, and to the small library. In the case of fiction, the literary review is likely to be as misleading as the popular one. The one looks at a novel as a piece of literature, usually without regard to its possible effect, the other regards it as legitimate amusement for adults, while the librarian must judge it from his knowledge of a multi-minded public, which, having widely varying conceptions of what is interesting and uninteresting, moral and immoral, funny and only silly, fine sentiment and "sentimental bosh," subtle analysis and "dull reading," on the whole agrees remarkably well as to what the library should or should not have on its shelves for its young people to read.

Sometimes by accident an ideal librarian's review appears—one which gives an adequate idea of the book's authority, an analysis of the subject-matter, definite statements as to manner of treatment, bias if any, style, virtues and defects, and a comparison with other books on the same subject. This is a good deal to ask of a reviewer except in the scholarly and professional papers, which offer something more than the book itself in payment.

In spite of the inadequacy of reviews the librarian is dependent on them to some extent. Comparative safety lies in selecting as many of the most reliable review periodicals as can be afforded and reading them all. In this way one gradually learns the peculiarities of each and allows for them. This is

especially true of periodicals having signed reviews contributed by a fairly stable corps of reviewers.

AIDS IN BOOK SELECTION

LIBRARY PUBLICATIONS

- A.L.A. booklist, a guide to the best new books, 1905-date. A.L.A. pub. bd. \$1 a yr.
- A.L.A. catalog; 8,000 volumes for a popular library; prepared by the New York State library and the Library of Congress. 1904. Supt. of Docs. \$1.
- A.L.A. catalog, 1904-1911. Class list: 3,000 titles for a popular library; ed. by Elva L. Bascom. 1912. A.L.A. pub. bd. \$1. 50.
- A.L.A. Publishing Board. Foreign book lists. A.L.A. pub. bd. 15c.-50c.
Selected lists of German, Hungarian, French, Norwegian and Danish, Swedish, Polish, and Italian books.
- Brown, Zaidee. Buying list of books for small libraries; new edition revised by Caroline Webster. 1913. A.L.A. pub. bd. 10c.
- Kroeger, A.B. Guide to the study and use of reference books. 2d ed. 1908. A.L.A. pub. bd. \$1. 50.
Annual supplements by I. G. Mudge, printed in *Library journal*; also in pamphlet form, 1909-10, 25c.; 1911-13, 40c. A.L.A. pub. bd.
- New York libraries (quarterly). New York State library, Albany, 25c. a yr.
Contains good brief lists.
- New York State library. A selection from the best books with notes (annual since 1897). Pub. by library. 10c.
- Open shelf: books added to the Cleveland Public library (monthly). Pub. by library.
Good notes.
- Pittsburgh. Carnegie library. Classified catalogs. Pub. by library.
1st series, 1895-1902. 3v. \$12.
2d series, 1902-1906. 2v. \$5.
3d series, 1907-1911. 3v. \$8.

Pittsburgh. Carnegie library. Monthly bulletin. Pub. by library.
25c. a yr.

Good notes.

Pratt Institute library, Brooklyn. Technical books (annual since 1908). Pub. by library.

Graded lists with good notes.

Sonnenschein, W. S. The best books. 3d ed. 1910-12. pts. 1-2. Putnam. \$3. 50 each (incomplete).

Walter, F. K. Periodicals for the small library. 1913. A.L.A. pub. bd. 10c.

Wilson, Martha, comp. Books for high schools. 1913. A.L.A. pub. bd. 50c.

Contains about 1,400 titles, classed and annotated.

Wisconsin library bulletin (monthly). Wis. lib. com. Madison. 60c. a yr.

Contains selected lists.

Wyer, J. I., Jr. U.S. government documents in small libraries. New ed. 1914. A.L.A. pub. bd. 15c.

TRADE PUBLICATIONS

Book review digest, 1906-date (monthly). H. W. Wilson Co. \$5 a yr. Yearly cumulation in January number, \$3.

Cumulative book index, 1912-date (bi-monthly). H. W. Wilson Co. \$6 a yr.

English catalogue of books (annual). R. R. Bowker Co. \$1. 50.

Publishers' weekly. R. R. Bowker Co. \$3 a yr.

Publishers' trade list annual. R. R. Bowker Co. \$2.

Reference catalogue of current literature (English). 3v. 1913. R. R. Bowker Co. \$6.

Severance, H. O. Guide to the current periodicals and serials of the United States and Canada. 3d ed. 1914. Wahr. \$3. 50.

United States catalog: books in print 1912. H. W. Wilson Co. \$36.

U.S. Superintendent of documents. Catalogue of United States public documents (monthly). Gov't printing office. \$1. 10 a yr.

The *Price lists* are furnished free on request.

The lists of current publications of the more popular departments, like the Department of Agriculture, are also very useful.

BOOK-REVIEWING PERIODICALS

American

Bookman (monthly). New York. \$2.50 a yr.

Dial (semi-monthly). Chicago. \$2 a yr.

Nation (weekly). New York. \$3 a yr.

New York times review of books (weekly). New York. \$1 a yr.

English

Athenaeum (weekly). London. £1, 10s. 6d.

Spectator (weekly). London. £1, 12s. 6d.

Of the newspapers and periodicals having a book section, or occasionally reviewing recent literature, the most reliable—judging from their use—seem to be the following:

Atlantic monthly. Boston. \$4 a yr.

Boston transcript (Wednesday and Saturday edition). Boston.
\$3 a yr.

Independent (weekly). New York. \$3 a yr.

North American review (monthly). New York. \$4 a yr.

Yale review (quarterly). New Haven, Ct. \$3 a yr.

SPECIAL SUBJECTS

In some subjects selection can be made wholly from general lists; in others special lists are valuable aids, either in furnishing additional or more recent titles or in confirming the choice of titles made from the general lists. The date of the special list should be carefully noted and the more recent books on the subject should be examined if possible. The source of special lists should be considered, the selection in some being more reliable than in others.

For the convenience of their readers large libraries print many lists which include practically everything the library contains on a subject. Such lists are useful to the small library because they show what material is available, but they should be used not as a selection, but as a basis for selection, just as one would use the card catalog of a large library. The briefer reference lists included in library bulletins (and sometimes issued separately also) usually represent a selection and are often very helpful. An index to these was compiled by the Providence Public Library and published by the

Boston Book Co. in 1907 (25c.) and is continued annually in the *Bulletin of bibliography*. (Boston Book Co. \$2.)

Many good lists are published also by organizations and institutions of all kinds, but specially those of the propaganda type.

Good lists on a subject are often to be found in new books. If they are selected and annotated they are specially valuable; if merely a list of the books the author has consulted their value is questionable.

To learn of new bibliographies and lists it is necessary to keep close watch of library periodicals. The largest number are cited in "Bibliographical notes" in the *Library journal*.

A closely selected list of bibliographies in book form chosen for small libraries is found in the *A.L.A. Catalog 1904-11*, under 016.

CHILDREN'S BOOKLISTS

Arnold, G. W., *comp.* Mother's list of books for children. 1909.

McClurg. \$1.

Brooklyn public library. Books that girls like. 1914. Pub. by library. 3c.

Buffalo public library. Graded list of books. 1909. Pub. by library. 25c.

Carnegie library of Pittsburgh. Catalogue of books in the children's department. 1909. Pub. by library. \$1.

—— Annotated catalogue of books used in home libraries and reading clubs. 1905. Pub. by library. 25c.

Cleveland public library. Seventy-five books of adventure for boys and girls. 1913. Pub. by library. 3c.

Harron, J. S., and others. Course of study for normal school pupils on literature for children. 1912. Elm Tree Press, Newark, N.J. \$1.

Hewins, C. M. Books for boys and girls. Revised edition. 1915. A.L.A. pub. bd. 20c.

New York public library. Heroism: a reading list for boys and girls. 1914. Pub. by library. 5c.

Olcott, F. J. The children's reading. 1912. Houghton. \$1.25.

Power, E. L. List of books for older girls. 1914. St. Louis pub. lib. 5c.

- Utica public library. Books for home reading. 4th ed. 1913.
 Pub. by library. 5c.
- Wilson, Martha, *comp.* Minnesota school library list: books for elementary and rural schools. 1913-14. Minnesota State Dept. of Education. 50c.
- Wisconsin free library commission. Suggestive list of children's books for a small library, compiled by H. T. Kennedy. 1910.
 Pub. by com'n. 25c. (New edition in preparation.)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Some of the best material is contained in English library journals. Excerpts from some of these articles can be found in the cumulated volume of *Library work* (edited by A. L. Guthrie, H. W. Wilson Co., 1912, \$4). They are fully indexed in Cannons' *Bibliography of library economy* (Stanley Russell & Co., London, 1910, 7s. 6d. net).

BOOK SELECTION: PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE

- Adams, C. F. The problem of the small public library. *Library journal*, 29:365-67, July 1904.
- Andrews, C. W. The acquisition of books. *Public libraries*, 8:195-202, May 1903.
- Askew, S. B. The place, the man and the book. *A.L.A. bulletin*, 150-57, Sept. 1908; also *N.Y. libraries*, 1:163-69, Jan. 1909.
- Bacon, Corinne. Principles of book selection. *N.Y. libraries*, 1:3-6, Oct. 1907.
- Bascom, E. L. How shall we select our books? *Iowa library quarterly*, 7:65-69, Jan.-March 1914.
- Bostwick, A. E. How libraries choose books. *Public libraries*, 8:137-41, April 1903.
- How to raise the standard of book selection. *Public libraries*, 14:163-67, May 1909.
- Bowerman, G. F. Principles governing the choice of religious and theological books for public libraries. *Library journal*, 30:137-40, March 1905.
- Cutter, C. A. Should libraries buy only the best books or the best books that people will read? *Library journal*, 26:70-72, Feb. 1901.

- Cutter, W. P. Report of the A.L.A. Committee on bookbuying. A.L.A. bulletin, 4:506-9, March 1910.
- Foster, W. E. Where ought the emphasis to be placed in library purchases? Library journal, 29:229-37, May 1904.
- Knowledge of books (editorial). N.Y. libraries, 2:251, July 1911.
- Perry, Bliss. Libraries and the community. Brookline (Mass.) public library, Dedication exercises, pp. 19-39.
- Shuman, E. L. How to judge a book, chap. 2, "First steps in analysis."
- Slosson, E. E. Books no public library should be without. Independent, 65:1559-62, 24 Dec. 1908.
- Wright, P. B. Some book-buying and other library problems. Public libraries, 13:165-68, May 1908.
- Wynkoop, Asa. Expensive books and the small library. N.Y. libraries, 2:251-52, July 1911.
- Outlines and references for library institutes: 1, Stocking the library; part 1, Selecting books. N.Y. libraries, 4:82-88, May 1914.
- Consult for many good references not included in this limited selection. Available in pamphlet form.
- Selection for all the people in the community. N.Y. libraries, 4:2-5, Nov. 1913.
- Waiting for bargains. N.Y. libraries, 2:156, Oct. 1910.

Fiction

- Bacon, Corinne. What makes a novel immoral? N.Y. libraries, 2:4-12, Oct. 1909; Wisconsin library bulletin, 6:83-95, July-Aug. 1910. Also in pamphlet form (revised 1914), H. W. Wilson Co. 10c.
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- Bascom, E. L. Selection of fiction. Wisconsin library bulletin, 9:34-40, April 1913.
- Bostwick, A. E. Purchase of current fiction. Library journal, 28:C31-33, 1903.
- The librarian as a censor. Papers and proceedings of the 30th annual meeting of the A.L.A., 1908, pp. 113-21.

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- Shuman, E. L. How to judge a book, chap. 9, "Morality in art."
- Steiner, B. C. Some problems concerning prose fiction. *Library journal*, 28:C33-35, 1903.
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Children's books

References are given in chapter xxix, "Library work with children," pp. 33-34.

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XVII

ORDER AND ACCESSION DEPARTMENT

FRANKLIN F. HOPPER
The New York Public Library

I. ORGANIZATION

The order and accession department of a large library should be in charge of some one familiar with book-trade conditions, prices and discounts, as well as with books and library needs. Knowledge of library technique is a secondary consideration. Certainly, however, the assistants must understand the details of library records. At the beginning of each fiscal year the librarian or book committee of the board will determine the amount available for book purchase for each department, and roughly apportion the amounts to be spent for certain classes of books, such as sets of periodicals. The head of the order department conducts the correspondence, decides where orders shall be placed, sees that the book funds are spent as apportioned, reads auction and second-hand catalogs with the librarian or reference librarian, makes or at least decides on the bids at auction sales, and in general sees that the book buying of the library is conducted in the cheapest and most business-like way. There should be an order clerk competent to price books and check bills, and an accession clerk. In many libraries the accession work is a part of the catalog department. In libraries large enough to demand another assistant in the order department, there is usually one of higher grade than the two mentioned, who has charge of gifts, continuations, and statistics, and has immediate supervision of all records. Different libraries will necessarily vary the organization.

MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY

2. PRINCIPLES OF BUYING

In planning the expenditure of book money, the librarian or book committee will have to decide the general policy of the library in book selection; what kinds shall be purchased largely, what classes shall be omitted, and what classes are debatable. Each year there will undoubtedly be special needs, perhaps even necessitating some modification of the general policy, but these needs should be provided for in the budget, and the amount of money needed for them be roughly apportioned in advance.

The cardinal principle in buying is business-like economy in securing the best prices possible, always taking into consideration the element of speed.

The first decision about buying a book in print must be as to whether it shall be bought at once or whether opportunities for later purchase at cheaper prices may be awaited. If it must be procured promptly it will be ordered in America or imported if the English price be less. If a delay is advisable, a slip will be placed in a "desirable" file awaiting opportunities for cheap purchase at auction, at second hand, or at "remainder" prices.

If a number of new copies of a book are likely to be needed during a year, it is wise to order them at one time. This will certainly mean economy in handling and in many cases better rates can be obtained.

Prices and service being equal, a local dealer should ordinarily receive the business of the library. The speed with which books may be secured on approval and the close relationship which may be established between dealer and library are of great value. If the local dealer is unsatisfactory, it will be best to deal almost wholly with one firm in a book center.

It is generally considered unwise to make a practice of asking bids on lists of books. If not exactly unfair to dealers, it is at any rate poor business policy for the library. Trial orders sent to different jobbers with due insistence upon bottom prices,

and subsequent comparison of the various bills will in the long run secure better prices. Occasional estimates from various dealers will give needed information in regard to the rates the library should be getting.

Book agents should be discouraged and extremely few books bought by subscription. Such books as atlases and encyclopedias it may occasionally be necessary to buy in that way, but there are few other exceptions. Subscriptions should not be made without first seeing the books, except in the case of the publications of private presses and book clubs, which require subscriptions in advance of printing. New editions of encyclopedias and in fact all subscription books need careful examination. If a subscription edition of a standard book is for any special reason considered desirable, it will almost certainly appear in the second-hand trade at greatly reduced cost in a year's time, but in general subscription editions are not preferable to good trade editions. If the library must subscribe, a discount should be demanded, for it can usually be obtained.

There are actually few rarities, although it often requires time to secure the less common books which only university or the largest public libraries are likely to want. Practically everything the average public library would buy appears in the auction or second-hand catalogs repeatedly. Consequently a library should seldom pay an excessive price for any book, no matter how desirable. There will be other opportunities to buy it.

Speed in getting books is often most important. One of the best ways to secure new books early is to inspect the samples of the publishers' "travelers" when they come to get orders from local booksellers, and then order the desirable ones before publication.

3. PRICES AND DISCOUNTS

Until 1901 there were no definite regulations in regard to the discounts which booksellers gave to libraries. Upon the

plea of protection for the retail dealer, however, on February 13 of that year the "net price" system was adopted at a meeting of the American Publishers' Association, reducing the discounts to 10 per cent to libraries for most new books of non-fiction. The limitation of discounts was to be removed one year after publication. The Association agreed that all copyrighted books first issued by the members of the Association after May 1, 1901, should be published at net prices which the resolution "recommended" should be reduced from the prices at which similar books had been issued theretofore. It was provided that there should be exempt from this agreement all school books, such works of fiction (not juveniles) and new editions as the individual publisher might desire, books published by subscription and not sold through the trade, and such other books as were not sold through the trade. The purely technical book publishers were not parties to the agreement. In accordance with the "recommendation" that list prices be reduced, librarians were given to understand that the publishers would reduce prices to such an extent that the cost to libraries would be increased only from 8 per cent to 12 per cent. The expectation of librarians in this respect was never generally fulfilled, the publishers maintaining that the increased cost of production and increased royalties to authors prevented any reduction in list prices. When libraries criticized the Association for failing to reduce the list prices the publishers replied that the Association had nothing to do with fixing prices, but only with maintaining them, each publisher being free to set his own prices. In February, 1902, an additional rule was adopted by which fiction issued by the publishers who were members of the Association was sold to those entitled to the 10 per cent discount on non-fiction at no greater discount than $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. In January, 1904, "juveniles" were included in this fiction rule. In January, 1907, the American Publishers' Association, because of decisions of the courts relating to combinations in restraint

of trade, changed its existing rules relating to net prices and then re-enacted them in a form in which no agreement to maintain net prices was stated formally. Recommendations only were made. Agreements to maintain prices were made between the individual publisher and the booksellers. The new arrangement caused no change, however, in the working of the net-price system as far as libraries were concerned. The final affirmation of the Macy decision in 1913 by the United States Supreme Court made it possible for only the individual publisher to enforce prices. At the end of 1914 the American Publishers' Association was dissolved, and it then became possible for dealers and individual publishers to grant libraries that are large buyers better than 10 per cent on new net books. In other words, the 10 per cent limitation is no longer strictly enforceable.

The books in print in this country and sold through the trade may be divided into the following classes:

1. New copyright non-fiction on which the discount to libraries theoretically is limited to 10 per cent within the year following publication. There is no longer any reason why libraries should not try to get better than 10 per cent. At the expiration of the year, a longer discount is allowed, but it is rarely as much as on "regular" books, and it is not often possible to obtain more than 25 per cent discount.

2. Fiction and juveniles treated as if they belonged to class 1. Few books were published in this class previous to 1910, when a large part of the fiction was issued at this net or "fixed" price. From February, 1902, until 1909 most fiction published was called "protected." In January, 1904, "juveniles" were included in the same class. Discount to libraries was limited to one-third within the year following publication, but after the year a dealer was free to give whatever discount he could afford. After the introduction of the "fixed price" fiction the publishers seemed to stop issuing "protected" fiction. Fiction is now either "net" or "regular," mostly the former.

3. Many scientific and technical books published at a "net" price but not under the same regulations as those in class 1.

The discounts obtainable by libraries range from 10 per cent to 25 per cent.

4. Many school and college textbooks published at a "net" price. From 10 per cent to 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent is the usual discount on this class. Better rates are in some cases obtainable.

5. Imported books listed in this country at a "net" price. The discount varies, but is usually short.

6. "Regular" books. Discount subject to no special limitation, but varies greatly. Many of the so-called "regular" books are those on which the copyright has expired. Previous to May, 1901, most of the new books were "regular," but the majority are now published at a net price. Many publishers have now made their entire lists net.

If a new book is to be purchased immediately and it is found that the English price is sufficiently lower than the American to justify delay, the book will be imported. In making the decision, it must be borne in mind that most new English books of non-fiction are net books on which there is no discount given to libraries. If the price in this country is net, one must find to which class of net books it belongs. If it has been published for more than a year, and belongs to either class 1 or 2, care must be taken that the library gets a discount larger than 10 per cent. It is sometimes possible to obtain from a dealer an extra long discount on "regular" books if a sufficient number of "net" books are ordered at the same time, in case the dealer will not grant better than 10 per cent discount on new net books. Publishers who are not also jobbers frequently refuse, in the interests of the booksellers, to sell directly to libraries, although particularly large orders for a few of their titles sometimes induce them to sell directly at a special rate. Publishers are, however, now selling directly to large libraries, much more generally than formerly. If a local dealer does not have a good stock of the popular books, both juvenile and adult, which libraries are constantly buying and replacing, or if he cannot furnish them at good rates, a library should not hesitate to buy them from the large city jobbers. The jobbers usually have

regular rates of discount on the books of the six different classes and sometimes of different publishers. If a trial order given to another jobber shows that certain classes of books or even certain titles can be secured more cheaply from him, it is very likely that your first jobber will meet his rival's figures or even beat them in order to retain your business. It is wise to deal mostly with one jobber, but the buyer must never forget or let the jobber forget that there are competitors who are after business. It sometimes happens that a library buys every year a very large number of certain titles, probably "juveniles." If the English edition is cheaper than the American, the library will import, although it may be inconvenient to do so because of the difficulty of getting many copies of a book through the custom house in one year. The lower English price, however, compels the library to import as many as it can. The American publisher of the book naturally does not like to see large orders for his own importations going to England, and he may be induced to sell the books to the jobber at such special rates that the jobber will be able to meet the English prices to the library. The buyer for the library must never forget that libraries are an important factor in the book market, not only because they get such large numbers of books, but because they are practically the only buyers of many items in the publishers' lists, because they keep many books in print by their orders for replacements, and because library business is sure pay.

4. COPYRIGHT AND IMPORTATIONS

The copyright laws of the United States, contained in the law approved March 4, 1909, allowed the importation, in one invoice, of one copy of any authorized edition of a book in English even if it has American copyright, when imported for use and not for sale by any school, university, or free public library. The importation of pirated editions is prohibited. Additional copies may be imported in subsequent invoices, and

by a ruling of the United States Treasury Department, a copy may be imported for each branch of a public library, a branch being considered as a separate library (see Treasury decisions under tariff and internal revenue laws, etc., 1898, vol. 1, pp. 40-41). The tariff law of 1913 increases from one to two copies the number that may be imported in any one invoice. As the larger importers receive shipments each week, two copies of a book can be imported by them each week for each library and for each branch. It is necessary to make an oath before a notary preliminary to free entry for each shipment, declaring that the books are imported for use of the library named and not for sale. The importer must also make oath on the same sheet that he is importing the listed books solely for said library. In addition a receipt for every lot of books so imported must be filed within 90 days of entry. Neither oaths nor receipts are required for books in foreign languages or books in English more than twenty years old, but for dictionaries and works consisting of plates without text or with index only, which are considered dutiable at the regular 15 per cent rate, papers for free entry for libraries are required.

English books may be imported through London agents or American importers. Most libraries find that for small orders it is cheaper to buy through the importer, who will pay all customs clearance and carriage charges. For the largest orders and for second-hand books London agents are probably the most effective, but for such importations an additional cost of at least 5 per cent must be reckoned for case, cartage, insurance, consular invoice (for a shipment of the value of \$100), freight, broker's fee on this side, and transportation from the dock to the library. Boxes from English agents are usually sent in bond to local customs house. For books in foreign languages the New York importer is more prompt and his prices are about the same as those of a continental agent. The former has already in stock many of the foreign books on library orders, and con-

sequently the delay of importing is saved. The prices of many foreign books, particularly French books, as listed in the trade bibliographies, are for unbound copies. Many libraries direct that such books be bound abroad, where the work is done cheaply and well. For picking up out-of-print or second-hand books, the continental agent is usually better than the importer. Neither English nor other foreign books should be imported through a local bookseller unless he is particularly well equipped. The importers usually charge at the following rates, f.o.b. New York.

20 to 21 cents per shilling for non-net English books.

25 cents per shilling for net books.

25 to 27 cents per shilling for second-hand books.

20 to 22 cents per mark.

17 to 19 cents per franc.

18 to 19 cents per lira.

20 to 21 cents per peseta.

40 to 45 cents per florin.

27 to 30 cents per kroner (Scandinavian).

60 to 65 cents per ruble.

20 to 22 cents per krone (Austrian, Hungarian, etc.).

Books may now be sent by mail from abroad very cheaply. Although there is a good chance of their being damaged, it is obvious that for books wanted in a hurry, or for very small orders, it may be wise for libraries to get them by mail.

Packages should not be registered or there may be the trouble of making declarations before customs officials. However, a customs ruling of October 3, 1913, now permits libraries to register on a "free list" kept by collectors, so that small importations by ordinary mail, not by freight or express, may be passed free of duty, without affidavit. Books can be sent from England at the rate of 8 cents per pound, from France and Switzerland at 10 cents per pound, and from Germany at 12 cents per pound in parcels weighing not over four pounds. A parcel-post

has also been introduced between Germany and the United States, and England and the United States, at 12 cents per pound, limit eleven pounds for each parcel. Much trouble will be avoided if all books from Canada are sent by mail unregistered, not by express.

Small libraries usually find that it is impractical to separate orders for the English from the American books. Reliable jobbers in the large cities will import English books for them, sending the necessary oaths to the librarian. Few small libraries contain the trade bibliographies necessary for a comparison of English and American prices, and if they do the librarians cannot spend the time for research.

5. AUCTION AND SECOND-HAND BUYING

Buying at auction and second hand is the only way in which a library can get many of the most important books, those long out of print. It is wise to have a file of cards for out-of-print books which it is hoped to find in auction or second-hand catalogs, for recent books which it is hoped to pick up cheaply, and for fiction and miscellaneous standard books which can be found at cheap prices either in the second-hand catalogs or more easily by personal visits to the second-hand shops. These cards should show favorable prices that are quoted in the catalogs from time to time. Most books can be bought more cheaply by wise auction buying than at second hand. The second-hand dealers get much of their stock at auction sales at bargain prices and libraries should do likewise. In buying sets of periodicals, however, it is probably better to purchase from reliable dealers who make a specialty of this line, for the perfection guaranteed is worth the extra money it costs. Recent books of a popular character, such as biographies, travels, histories, can be picked up for half the price of publication within a short time from second-hand dealers, particularly English dealers, such as Mudie, Smith, Douglas and Foulis, and John Grant. Sub-

scription books are frequently found soon after publication in auction catalogs, and in the catalogs of both American and English second-hand dealers, at a fraction of their original cost. Fiction (not too new) and added copies of popular standard books can be obtained at cheap rates from American second-hand dealers, but it is desirable to see second-hand fiction before buying, in order to be sure that edition and condition are satisfactory. Orders from American catalogs should go direct to the dealer. If the library has an agent in the same city as the dealer, the books may be sent to the agent for inclosure to the library, to avoid express charges. Personal visits to the second-hand dealers are certainly to be preferred to the practice of sending lists, particularly of fiction to be picked out from stock. Children's books in proper editions are difficult to find in second-hand shops, and inspection previous to purchase is particularly desirable. It is advisable to guard against unreliable dealers in second-hand books, who may be selling stolen property. Many consider second-hand children's books dangerous because of possible exposure to contagious diseases. Visits to second-hand shops are advisable for building up a "stock" collection, that is a collection of the most popular books bought at bargain prices which can be drawn upon for replacements and added copies. It does not pay to buy second-hand fiction in England. If out-of-print books are wanted quickly the library must advertise in the *Publishers' weekly* "Books Wanted" columns or in similar columns in other periodicals, although books secured in this way usually cost more than if picked up at auction. It is not generally advisable to advertise in this country through a dealer. It is cheaper, quicker, and better for a library to advertise directly. For English and other foreign books, however, the importer or preferably the foreign agent should conduct the advertising, the librarian naming the highest price he is willing to pay, unless he is willing to wait for quotations to be submitted.

It is doubtless true that the librarian of a small library has no time to read auction catalogs, but it is the best way economically, and gradually but surely, to build up a good collection. Some libraries of from 15,000 to 25,000 volumes find it possible and advantageous to spend some time reading catalogs of second-hand books if not auction catalogs. On common books a bid of one-third the price of publication will yield excellent results. For the more expensive books, records of sales recorded in "American book prices current," in the similar English records, or in the best catalogs of second-hand dealers, must be consulted. Bids should usually be not much in excess of the lowest prices recorded. There are few books which do not repeatedly appear in the auction catalogs, and a book not secured at the first bidding can probably be got in a short time at another sale. If the library cannot afford to bid what a book is worth or what it is likely to bring, that is no reason why a very low bid should not be made. Many valuable items are in this way often picked up very cheaply. Bids may be sent on the blanks provided, either to the auctioneer direct, who will execute the bids with no charge, or to a regular agent who will attend the sales and charge a commission. For the smaller libraries it is doubtless best to send directly to the auctioneer, if he is trustworthy. Libraries which do much buying at auction find it better to have a thoroughly reliable agent who can be depended upon carefully to inspect the books, to secure the items the libraries want at a price as much below the limit set as possible, to pick up real bargains which he knows the libraries will want, and to report back to the libraries the prices brought by the items he did not secure. The advantage of this report on prices is that they may be noted on the order card, which can again be filed in the "desirable" file. This additional information will be valuable when it is time to bid again on the item. The "notable" sales are to be avoided, as books sell at higher prices.

There are a number of dealers who make a specialty of "remainders," which can often be secured at one-third to one-half the prices of publication, in perfect condition. "Remainders" is the trade name for the copies of certain books left on the hands of the publishers when the sale has become so slow that they can no longer afford to give them shelf room. They are sold to dealers in new or second-hand books at so low a price that the dealers can afford to dispose of them cheaply. Many books sent to newspaper offices for review are thrown on the market at cheap prices soon after publication.

6. EXCHANGES, SALE DUPLICATES, AND GIFTS

Excellent use of library publications is possible in obtaining similar publications from other libraries, and the publications of many societies and institutions. Usually two records are kept of these exchanges of library publications, a mailing list of libraries to which reports, bulletins, etc., are sent, and a card check list for similar publications currently received.

The exchange of duplicates has not been developed as much as would seem to be advantageous. Every library receives gifts of books not needed, perhaps because there may be copies already in the library. Gradually these books become a large collection, increased perhaps by withdrawals of unused books from branches. Many libraries put all such books together in one alphabetical file, and some very large libraries separate them into two groups, (1) those that may have a demand in the future and those that have value to some other library, and (2) those that are of such slight value that exchange with other libraries is out of the question. These latter are sometimes set aside for sale in bulk by auction or to a dealer. The first group is sometimes arranged in broad classes. As opportunity allows, these duplicate books, certainly those in class one, may be listed, and the lists sent to other libraries on cards or typewritten lists, or published in bulletins or annual reports, or,

where the duplicate collection is very large, it has been found useful to print lists of "Offers" on exchange account such as those sent out by the Library of Congress on galley strips. If books have slight money value there is no valuation affixed to the titles on the list and they are exchanged on the basis of the number of volumes. More valuable books are exchanged on a price basis. The lists of "Wants" which the Library of Congress prints in the same way as the lists of "Offers" are also suggestive as to what other large libraries may do. A despised collection of duplicates can be made very valuable for exchange purposes, but there is as yet little attention paid to it in most libraries. If large libraries will publish in their annual reports and bulletins titles of value that they have for exchange, indicating "Wants" at the same time, much can be accomplished. The A.L.A. Bulletin has a column called "Sale, exchange, wants," in which any library member of the Association may insert, without cost, a ten-line notice of books or periodicals wanted, for sale or exchange. Many books which do not contain library stamps can be exchanged with second-hand dealers to advantage. Dealers will visit libraries to see what the duplicates are. Most libraries keep few duplicates of United States documents, since these can be shipped back to the Superintendent of Documents, who supplies franks. The idea of central clearing-houses for duplicates has frequently been considered, but to little advantage. However some state libraries have performed excellent service as clearing-houses for odd numbers of magazines.

The records of exchanges of duplicates are usually kept either on cards or in a loose-leaf exchange ledger, the cards or the sheets being arranged alphabetically by libraries. In one column is kept the record of the number of volumes and pamphlets sent out and in another column the number received. In case of priced exchanges the value of each title or of each shipment is recorded.

A printed form should not generally be used in soliciting gifts; a courteous letter, written with care, should be the means used. In general all gifts should be accepted, unless impossible conditions are attached. It is desirable that the donor grant the library the privilege of using the gift for sale or exchange if it ever becomes of no use on the library shelves. It is possible to obtain many state, municipal, and society publications if proper request is made. If the library has its own publications for exchange, a mention of willingness to send such publications in return for the gift sought will greatly increase the books a library may secure in this way. All gifts should be acknowledged promptly, and a record made on a card under the name of the donor. The card should contain, in addition, the address of the donor, a list of the gifts, the number of volumes, and the date received. If needed for statistics the cards can be kept for a month or a year in a temporary file, and later be transferred to a permanent file. A careful line should be drawn between books received as gifts and those received as exchanges.

A small library can do but little with exchanges, except perhaps in exchanging odd numbers of periodicals through a clearing-house, but it should not hesitate to seek gifts because it has no library publications to exchange.

7. ORDER RECORDS AND THE CHECKING OF BILLS

There should be a file of outstanding orders, the cards being arranged alphabetically by authors' names. A simple form of order card containing few details is recommended. These cards should contain author's surname, initials of his first and middle names (the first name in full if there is no middle name), brief title, volume number or number of volumes, edition, publisher, price, year of publication, and, if purchase has been requested by anyone, that person's name and address. Where importation is considered, it is wise to give both English and American prices and publishers. Where books are ordered for

branches as well as for a central library, or for different departments of a university, a simple printed form is usually devised giving names of branches or departments, space for number of copies, and date. If the library is a large public library, one order file for the central library and another for the branches is often considered advisable. When the order is sent the name of the dealer and date of the order should be stamped on the card. The typewritten order list (sometimes a part of a letter to the dealer) is arranged either by publishers or alphabetically by authors, and edition, publisher, and list price specified. A letter-press or carbon copy of the list should be kept at the library. Some libraries use an order slip copied in triplicate by the use of carbon paper laid between the order slips. One copy is kept at the library for the order file, one copy is sent to bookseller, and the third copy is used for ordering Library of Congress cards. If these cards are to be ordered the serial number should be put on the order card when the prices are looked up. Sometimes a carbon copy of the order slip is sent to a branch which may be ordering the book. The bookseller's copy of the order slip should be returned in the book when the order is filled. For books bid for at auction, the date of sale, number of item in the catalog, and name of the auction firm should be given on the card, which should be filed among regular outstanding orders.

Dealers should be urged to arrange the items on bills alphabetically, and when books and bills are received, the cards should be drawn from the order file. Working from the bill, it is convenient to place the books on a truck; then working from invoice and cards together to make sure of correctness of charges and editions, the source and price, with date of bill if desired, should be marked in each book, or in the first volume only of a set. Writing the price in cipher is not recommended; it takes too much time. Some libraries do not write price, etc., in book, but put order card in the book until the accession work is done.

In checking the bill, the branch or department for which the item is wanted may be indicated opposite the charge, for later distribution. The date of receipt (or date of the invoice) may be stamped on the card and on the invoice, and if books are accessioned, it is desirable to have them entered under the same date. Some libraries put the cards back in the same file, but a separate file for books received is the more general custom. The cards should remain in this file until the books are cataloged, or, if there is plenty of room, it may be desirable to keep cards for replacements, added copies, and branch books for six months or a year, or a sufficient length of time to answer all reasonable questions that may arise concerning them.

Some university libraries do not keep the order cards after the accession record has been made but return them to the department that ordered the books as notice that the books have been received. Some libraries use the order cards permanently for shelf-list cards as they contain a great deal of useful information. In even very small libraries an order record on slips is very desirable since there is always danger of duplication, even though the librarian may know the collection well, and since the slips can be used after the book is cataloged for either accession record or for shelf list.

Large libraries with numerous branches find it useful to have a card list of books which are likely to be duplicated or replaced. Full notes of desirable editions, publishers, prices, etc., save much time when ordering again. A card list of approved and disapproved titles is useful.

Generally libraries keep a separate file for continuations, such as annual publications, books coming out in parts, sets appearing by the volume, and books in series when the order has been entered for the whole series. A so-called "continuation" order is a great convenience, since it obviates the necessity of ordering each year such a publication as a city directory or the annual report of a society. Generally speaking, a continuation

order for such a series as many of the series of biographies is not advisable, since almost always the series will contain some books which are not particularly desirable. The "continuations" file generally includes state and United States government documents which are received from time to time. Some libraries put an order card for such a publication as the *Cambridge modern history* (which appears a volume at a time) in the regular order file and other libraries in the "continuations" file. It is often necessary to look in both files to find whether a book has been ordered or received. Some libraries put the "gift continuations" in still another file, but this is not the common custom. The main idea of the "continuations" file is analogous to that of the record of current periodicals. The file should be checked over frequently, and requests sent for volumes that are overdue. Usually a specially printed card is used giving space for author and title (such as, American Society of Mechanical Engineers. Transactions), name and address of secretary of the society, publisher and his address, frequency of publication, whether gift or purchase, name of agent, price and cost of each volume, dates of publication, date of original order and call number of the set in the library. There should also be as many spaces as possible on the card for the number of each volume received, the year of its publication, and the date of its receipt. Some of the library-supply houses make special cards for use in a "continuations" file.

A stock record of the books already in the library, those added, withdrawn, or lost and of the resulting number still in the collection should be kept in the order department. It will be wise to keep these statistics up to date. A very simple form can easily be devised.

8. COLLATION

Some libraries formerly collated all books, but the process is a very expensive one, and publishers are usually ready to

make good the imperfections even if discovered years after the books were bought. Consequently the general practice now is to collate only books above a definite value. A quick glance through a book when it is being checked or accessioned will take little time and usually discloses any defacement.

9. THE ACCESSION BOOK

Accession records, or chronological lists of books added to the library, are kept in different ways.

The first and general one is either the A.L.A. standard or the condensed accession book. Full directions for use are in the front of each accession book. The lines are numbered consecutively and each volume requires a line. The number of each line, called the accession number, is usually stamped or written on the first page after the title-page, about an inch from the bottom and exactly in the middle of the page. Stamping on the reverse of the title-page should be avoided as it will injure the back of the book. If desired, a complete history of each book may be kept by noting withdrawal in the remarks column. It is possible to omit some of the entries for which space is provided, as call number, size, binding, and paging. To save time, authors' surnames only may be given, some quicker method of handwriting than the "library" kind used, indelible pencils instead of pens employed, and even ditto marks omitted. Unless books are accessioned after being cataloged, entering call numbers in the accession book takes too much time. It saves time to accession books immediately after the invoice is checked, and as neither an absolutely correct form of author's name nor an entry of call number in the accession book is necessary, most libraries consider it wise to accession before cataloging. It may also be said that a book may be loaned to a reader immediately after the accession record is made, but if he has to wait for cataloging (a much slower process) and subsequent accessioning, the delay may easily be too great.

A second method now much used by large libraries, and said to save time, records accessions by lots. The bills of each dealer are numbered chronologically for each year, and filed first alphabetically and second numerically. The accession number consists of the initial or name of the dealer followed by the bill number and the last two figures of the current year. For example, the sixth bill from McClurg in 1908 would receive the number M608 or McClurg 608. This number is put in the accession book, on the bill, and on the shelf cards. For the form of book used and description of the method consult Miss Stearns's pamphlet *Essentials in library administration* (A.L.A. Library handbook no. 1), pp. 45-46. For gifts a memorandum is made in the form of a bill and books added by binding are accessioned from the binding bill. Since publisher, price, and date, as well as the accession number, must be entered on the shelf cards, it is doubtful if this method takes much less time than the more general method of accessioning one book to a line. The form of the book used in accessioning by lot gives spaces for recording withdrawals and for balancing additions and withdrawals. This combination of an accession and stock record is simple and good.

A third method of accessioning is that of the substitution of order cards for accession book. As used by the Public library of the District of Columbia, this method is proving successful and time saving. The order cards first contain the usual information, but after bills are checked, cost-price, binding (when other than cloth), and date of bill are noted on the cards. Corresponding numbers are given to books and cards, and the cards are filed again under author in order or receipt indexes. When the books are cataloged and the catalog cards filed, the order cards are withdrawn from the order or receipt index, where they stand according to author, and filed in the accession list according to number. The last accession number is found from a card kept at the back of the accession file on which at

the close of each day this last number is written. A separate record is kept daily of the number of gifts accessioned. This is for monthly statistics. When duplicate copies of a book are received at one time, the inclusive numbers are placed on the face of the card, and the intervening numbers separately on the back. Space is left alongside each number for indicating to which branch a book is sent and also for noting withdrawal. A separate slip is required for each volume of periodicals or other continuations if added at different times. For libraries which do not care for much bibliographical detail in the records of their books, or for those which note bibliographical detail on their catalog cards, this method of accessioning is doubtless an excellent one. A fuller discussion of the subject of accession records, by Mr. Henry E. Bliss, will be found in the *Library Journal* for May, 1913.

10. BUYING REPLACEMENTS AND DUPLICATES

The selection of replacements and books to be duplicated is usually not made by the order department. In most large libraries the custom is to send the book slips or other record of all books withdrawn or lost to the order department, with indications as to which books are to be replaced. It is the custom in some libraries to mark on the shelf list the number of copies of each book which it is desirable to have permanently. Then by reference to the shelf list it is easy to decide quickly whether a certain copy needs to be replaced. Some libraries are finding it very useful to have a permanent file of all titles approved for replacement and duplication, with notes of desirable editions, publishers, and prices. Such a file expedites the work of ordering and may also help whoever decides on the copies to be replaced. If the only copy of a book a library has is to be replaced, it is usually desirable to secure it quickly, particularly if the cards are left in the catalog during the process of replacement. In sending to the order department lists of

books to be replaced or duplicates to be ordered, it is wise to indicate the speed with which orders should be filled, for it is easy to secure these books cheaply in the second-hand trade if some time can be allowed. A large part of replacements and duplicates in public libraries are likely to be children's books, which in general it is wise not to try to get at second hand. Many libraries get much of the fiction second hand, if sufficiently cheap, and such of the standards as are permanently popular in a special, strong library binding.

Sometimes the accession number of the book to be replaced is written on the order card, and when the new copy is received the old number is penciled near the new accession number, so that, in order to preserve the history of the book, this number may be entered in the "remarks" column of the accession book. A very simple method, now sometimes used and particularly to be recommended to small libraries, is to consider all replacements as duplicates (added copies) and so dispense entirely with the replacement records. Still, many libraries think it best to separate the two classes, and even to record separately the amount spent each year for them. The custom of giving a replacement the old accession number has been pretty generally abandoned. A separate record for the new book gives greater accuracy. If a lost book is replaced and the new copy is accessioned on the same number, the original copy may turn up and cause confusion, which can be avoided by giving the replacement a new accession number.

II. WITHDRAWALS

Formerly most libraries kept withdrawal books, in which there was an entry of one book to a line, like an accession record. The custom is no longer common, however, because it is expensive and not indispensable. Withdrawals are now usually shown simply by marking the accession number off the shelf list, and by counting the number of each month for statistics. Some

libraries note in the accession book when a book is withdrawn, but this record is not absolutely necessary, although it is a good one to have. A withdrawal card is sometimes used but it can be dispensed with. In most large libraries the order department keeps the records of the total number of books withdrawn as well as the total number added, the records of the additions and withdrawals by class being kept in the catalog department.

12. BUYING PERIODICALS

The custom in most libraries is to place the yearly order for American magazines with one subscription agency and that for all foreign magazines either with a European agent who sends them all directly to the library by mail, or with their regular New York book importer who secures all the periodicals in weekly bales from London, Paris, or Leipzig and mails them from the New York office to the library. The latter method is generally considered both cheaper and more satisfactory, as there is less danger of damage and loss. Some very large libraries find it advisable to place subscriptions for English periodicals with one dealer and the French, German, and other foreign subscriptions with their various agents for books in those respective tongues. Very small libraries usually place all subscriptions with one American subscription agent who will supply the few foreign periodicals they need at nearly as good rates as do importers. Occasionally a library can secure a better rate for a few periodicals and newspapers by subscribing directly from the publishers. Most libraries prefer to place subscriptions for American periodicals with the same agent year after year as long as the service is satisfactory, as there is a disadvantage in changing agents. Agents handling a library's orders for a considerable period become acquainted with the library's peculiar demands and are in some cases able to save trouble by forestalling demands in the way of providing title-pages, indexes,

etc. The prices of magazines are sometimes raised before the expiration of subscriptions. Agents usually know of such changes in advance and will notify librarians to place their orders for those magazines before the change. If a library changes agents constantly, such attention from an agent cannot be expected. It is doubtful whether libraries now find it profitable to secure bids each year.

It is in some cases possible for libraries to obtain the advantage of cutting by agents by securing competitive bids, though as a matter of fact the different totals will vary only slightly. A library should be able to secure as good rates from one agency as another, large or small. All the large agencies publish catalogs, listing most magazines at a catalog price, the minimum price to libraries or individuals (the same to either, and it may or may not be less than the publisher's list price, which is usually also given in the catalog). Other magazines in the catalog have a "class number" for use in determining the price at which class publications may be sold with other publications in magazine clubs. The class number may be resolved into dollars and cents by multiplying it by 5. This class price is not quoted to individuals on single subscriptions, but only on publications when included in clubs. It apparently is not supposed to be so quoted to libraries either, except as they order more than one magazine which would be included in a club for an individual. This, however, is done. The situation in the magazine business seems to be constantly changing and libraries must watch the agents' catalogs closely. In general it may be said that the frequent changing of agents is not desirable, but a library should see to it that its agent is giving the best possible prices. It may be added that those libraries that order only the leading periodicals will obtain the best rates by ordering from local dealers in periodicals, since the leading periodicals have but one price and do not permit rate cutting by anyone, and the local dealer, anxious for the good will and trade of the library

in other lines will be able to make up shortages or missing items from his stock of current magazines. The catalogs of the large subscription agencies can also be obtained from the dealer, as they make it a point to keep him thoroughly informed. The situation that a librarian or individual when subscribing to several magazines must be charged for groups, and not by item, as distinct from libraries charged by item and not clubs or groups, has changed since the Periodical Clearing House Association has been discontinued. The rates established by the leading publications are exactly the same for libraries and individuals.

The scheme of "deferred subscriptions" is valuable when additional copies of magazines are needed for binding purposes, or when it makes no particular difference if the numbers are not received immediately after publication. For about one-third the price of subscription, copies may be obtained about one month late.

It is generally cheaper and easier to buy back numbers of periodicals from the regular dealers in odd numbers, rather than from the magazine publishers. There are a number of such dealers whose catalogs are sent occasionally to practically all libraries. The catalogs, however, rarely list anything but complete volumes.

In buying complete volumes of periodicals it is necessary to collate carefully, for inaccuracies are very common. The best dealers will make good all imperfections. It is always risky to buy volumes of magazines at auction. It is possible to obtain from many of the dealers back volumes of popular periodicals at very reasonable prices, but there are only a few dealers on whom a library can depend for the less common Poole sets. Their charges are not low, but the perfection they guarantee is worth paying for. There are dealers who make a specialty of sets of technical periodicals which are usually expensive.

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XVIII

CLASSIFICATION

CORINNE BACON
The H. W. Wilson Co.

OUTLINE

Definition
Historical introduction
Location and arrangement
Notation
"Subject" classification (J. D. Brown)
Library of Congress classification
Expansive classification (Cutter)
Decimal classification (Dewey)
Rules for classifying
 Close classification
Book numbers
Bibliography

DEFINITION

Classification is "the putting together of like things." Book classification, as defined by Mr. C. A. Cutter, is "the grouping of books written on the same or similar subjects."

Some intelligent people still ask why librarians classify books. Why not stand them on the shelves in the order in which they come into the library, or arrange them according to size? We classify to bring together those books which will be most used together—to secure "economy and efficiency in the use of books" by speed of service and by grouping related books that the reader might not think of assembling for himself. The average reader prefers to examine a group of books rather than a group of catalog cards, or even a printed catalog on his subject. Richardson (*Classification*, 1912, p. 27) says that "in a large scholarly library, doubling the entire delivery and reference force would not give the efficiency to an unclassified library of even a barely tolerable classification."

MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY

Classification may be (a) natural or logical, that is, arrangement by essential likeness, or (b) artificial, that is, arrangement by some accidental feature. A strictly logical library classification is probably an impossibility. Convenience in use must be the criterion in the average library. Then, too, the logical relation of any given book to any others varies with the type of library. A book dealing with the question of Hamlet's sanity would class with Shakespeare in a general, with insanity in a medical library. Moreover, authors regard not the convenience of classifiers, but insist upon producing many books which belong, logically, in several places. So even if a perfectly logical classification of knowledge be worked out, it will not fit the books. Library classification, then, must needs be more or less artificial.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

Some of the older classifications were more useful as classifications of *knowledge* than as classifications of *books*. A good example of this is Francis Bacon's classification of knowledge into three great classes according to the faculty of the mind employed in each:

History (Memory)

Science of Philosophy (Reason)

Poetry (Imagination)

For details, see Richardson, *Classification*, 1912, pp. 60-61.

This has been tried as a book classification and has been found wanting. We are no longer trying to evolve a complete and fixed classification of human knowledge which may be applied to books. Convenience in use is now placed before philosophical order. The classification of books is acknowledged to be an art, not a science—"a human creation for a human end."

Some form of classification seems to have existed in early times. The Egyptian and Hebrew temple libraries were probably classified, and that Assyrian and Babylonian libraries

were classified is certain, but the proper history of book classification begins with that of the Alexandrian library as expounded, if not invented, by Callimachus.

Edwards, in his *Memoirs of libraries*, 1859, notes 32 schemes of classification, and Richardson in his *Classification*, 1912, notes over 100 "practical" schemes, i.e., those with a notation.

Some of the earliest attempts in modern times at book classification were made for commercial purposes. The scheme of Conrad Gesner, Swiss physician and philosopher, devised in 1548, has been called by some the first bibliographical system published with a view to the *use* rather than the *sale* of books (Edwards, *Memoirs of libraries*, 2:762).

W. T. Harris, the first draft of whose scheme was printed in 1875, is said to have been the first to produce a method adapted to the needs of a modern library. This scheme bears some resemblance to the Decimal classification in its 100 subdivisions and in the general sequence of its main divisions. (See *Journal of speculative philosophy*, 4:114-19, April, 1870.)

A well-known European system is that of Gustav Brunet who, in his *Manuel du libraire*, gives more than 1,100 subdivisions under the five main classes: Theology; Jurisprudence; Sciences and arts; Belles-lettres; History (including Literary history and Bibliography). This system dates from 1810, is founded on a large number of actual titles, has many elements of practicality, and has been much used, especially in France.

LOCATION AND ARRANGEMENT

Five stages of development may be distinguished in the arrangement of books in the modern library, though it is not to be understood that all libraries, or even a majority of them, have passed through all five of these stages.

(1) Accession order.

Books stand on the shelves in the order in which they come into the library.

(2) Size.

Books used to be arranged by size in many French, and in some American, libraries.

(3) Numerical sequence or alphabetical arrangement by author under very broad classes.

Brown (*Manual of library classification*, 1898, p. 16) states that most English public libraries make from 6 to 10 main divisions, and arrange by accession number or special shelf number under each.

(4) Fixed location. "System of marking and arranging books by shelf and book marks so that their absolute position in room, tier, and on shelf is always the same."
—C. A. Cutter.

That is, each book belongs in a particular spot on a particular shelf. Its mark may be 1264 . 30, meaning 1st floor, 2d room, 6th case, 4th shelf, 30th book.

These figures have nothing to do with the *classification* of the book, but only with its *location*. The older schemes of classification made no provision for marking the place of the books on the shelves. With fixed location, room was left for growth in each class, but it was impossible to guess aright, and some classes always became congested. When this happened, if the librarian wished to move the books to make room for additions, all the shelf marks, on the books and in the catalog, had to be altered. Some libraries did not rearrange, but repeated the classification in another room, getting two parallel libraries. (For these and other attempts at solution, see *Library journal*, 4:234-35, June-July, 1879.) Mr. Poole arranged the Boston Athenaeum on a fixed location plan and in thirteen years had to rearrange American history three times and to make new shelf-lists.

- (5) Relative location. "An arrangement of books according to their relations to each other and regardless of the shelves or rooms where they are placed. Relative location, like a card catalog, admits indefinite intercalation; the books can be moved to other shelves or rooms without altering the call numbers."— C. A. Cutter.

With this scheme, the letters or figures used in marking the books, instead of referring to a given room, case, and shelf, stand for specific major or minor subjects. The book, once correctly marked, need never have the mark changed, though its place on the shelf be changed 50 times. New books may be added to the class and shelved in their correct relative positions to the others in that class.

Several forms of this plan, apparently independently devised, have been used.

With relative location, room is still left for growth, and it is not necessary to move the whole library and change the shelf marks every time more books than you have space for are added to a class. You may make a wrong guess as to the space needed for growth, but when you do, it only means moving more books and does not necessitate changing the numbers on the books and in the catalog.

The difference between fixed and relative location has been clearly illustrated by Mr. C. A. Cutter, as follows: "The former [fixed] may be compared to the line in the directory which states that a man lives at 129 Grace St.; the latter [movable] to the Army Register, which says that he is captain of Company C, Fifth Regiment, M.V. The street is immovable but the regiment may be marched from one part of the country to another, yet the man is easily found by his position in it. Similarly books may be found by their position in a certain class, though the class itself be moved from one alcove to another. If the man moves to a new street, a new directory

is needed; but the Army Register does not have to be altered just because the regiment has been quartered in a different town" (*Library journal*, 4:236, June-July, 1879).

Some of the principles of arrangement which enter into various systems of classification, some ruling in one system, some in another, are:

Alphabetical arrangement by author

Geographical arrangement

Chronological arrangement

Arrangement by form or kind of literature to which the book belongs

Arrangement by size

Arrangement by language

NOTATION

It is not enough to classify books—they must be marked in such a way that if taken from the shelves they can be replaced correctly. The system of shelf marks (figures, letters, arbitrary characters, or any combination of these) employed to number the books according to the subdivisions of the classification is called notation. It is necessary to distinguish between classification and notation. Classification is the arrangement in classes; notation is "a shorthand series of names for classes."

A notation should be simple, easy to read, write, and remember, and should have great capacity for subdivision. In Edwards' scheme drawn up about 1850 for the Manchester Public Libraries, the ecclesiastical history of England is III-7 fi. Brown, without changing the classification, alters the notation for this to C7-5, a much simpler form. The mnemonic element is considered by some to be of prime importance. Opinions vary as to whether letters or figures are the easier to read, write, and remember. It is said that every practical system sooner or later makes use of both letters and figures.

Some of the criteria of a good classification are as follows:

1. "It should, as nearly as possible, follow the order of things.
2. It should be carried out in minute detail.
3. It should be provided with a notation which will allow for indefinite subdivision, using mixed symbols, but with a predominant decimal base.
4. It should be provided with a detailed and specific index.
5. The value of such a system is increased in direct ratio to the generalness of its use."

—Richardson, *Classification*, 1912, pp. 42-43.

A practical system actually in use may therefore be preferable to one scientifically better. Different sizes and types of libraries may call for different schemes of classification.

SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION (BROWN)

A number of English libraries use the Subject classification compiled by James Duff Brown, 1906, in response to a demand from many libraries in the United Kingdom for a greatly extended version of the Adjustable classification, published in 1898. The *main classes* are the following:

A	Generalia	}	Matter and force
B-D	Physical science		
E-F	Biological science	}	Life
G-H	Ethnology and medicine		
I	Economic biology		
J-K	Philosophy and religion	}	Mind
L	Social and political science		
M	Language and literature	}	Record
N	Literary forms		
O-W	History, geography		
X	Biography		

These letters are followed by Arabic numerals, three being the ordinary number. These are to be read decimally, but Mr. Brown does not make use of the decimal point and added

digits to break up large topics or insert additional heads. The decimal point and figures after it are used only for subdividing topics by his "Categorical tables," to which there is a special index. Instead of a local list, the author uses the country number after the topic number.

Example: I 760 W 216.10. History of boot and shoemaking in Boston, Mass. (W 216 being the country number).

Mr. Brown does not separate a science and its application in the arts or trades. He tries to arrange every class in "a systematic order of scientific progression, as far as it seemed possible to maintain it." Mr. W. W. Bishop says of the Subject classification: "He [Mr. Brown] has made a classification with a reasonably flexible notation; one which can be applied without too great strain on the memory, and which should prove fairly expansive in practice. . . . So far as its merits as a classification are concerned, it can hardly be said to be the equal of the Expansive classification, although it avoids the deadlier pitfalls of the Decimal classification, while as a scientific product it falls far short of several of the other well-known schemes" (*Library journal*, 31:836, December, 1906).

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CLASSIFICATION

The three systems most in use in the United States today are the Dewey-Decimal or D.C., the Cutter Expansive or E.C., and the classification of the Library of Congress.

The Library of Congress scheme is planned especially for a large library. In August, 1914, it was in use (or in a few cases to be put in use), either wholly or in part, by libraries as follows: 17 government, 1 state, 7 university, 3 special, 1 public, and 1 foreign.

The notation uses both letters and figures. It has not yet been completely worked out.

The following statement is quoted from a descriptive pamphlet on *The Library of Congress and its work*, issued in 1907:

"The new system of classification is devised from a comparison of existing schemes (including the 'Decimal' and the 'Expansive'), and a consideration of the particular conditions in this library, the character of its present and probable collections, and its probable use. It is assumed that the departments of history, political and social science, and certain others will be unusually large. It is assumed that investigators will be freely admitted to the shelves. The system devised has not sought to follow strictly the scientific order of subjects. It has sought rather convenient sequence of the various groups, considering them as groups of books, not as groups of mere subjects. It has sought to avoid technical, foreign, or unusual terms in the designation of these groups. It has selected for the symbols to denote them: (1) for the classes, a capital letter or a double letter; (2) for the subclasses, these letters combined with a numeral in ordinary sequence. Provision for the insertion of future groups is: (1) in intervening numbers as yet unused; (2) in the use of decimals."

This notation secures for future development the greatest possible elasticity in providing for intercalation of new classes or subclasses as well as for divisions and subdivisions under subjects. A third letter could be resorted to without inconvenience if desired, while the numbers for divisions might be easily converted into decimals by writing them in the form 0001 to 9999. The advantage of a shorter mark for many thousands of books was considered to outweigh the slight esthetic defect of a little less symmetry in appearance. This consideration was also one of the factors which determined the incorporation of the local lists in the schedules themselves wherever a country or other local subarrangement was desired under a subject, at the loss (to a certain degree only, however) of the mnemonic value of a constant symbol for such divisions when affixed to the subject number, as is the practice in the Expansive and the Brussels schedule, and less effectively in the Dewey.

The other factor, and the far more important one, is that the Library of Congress arrangement permits the grouping under a country of all the subdivisions of a subject in logical order which are immediately related among themselves and have jointly a more intimate relation to the country than to the general theoretical works on the subject, while the mechanical application of a local list under

every subject, and various subdivisions under it, has the effect of scattering in many places material which belongs together. . . . The schedules also embrace a mass of technical detail in the way of tables of form divisions and similar devices for the treatment and orderly arrangement of masses of material such as official documents and the like. . . .

The general principle of arrangement within the classes or under subjects is as follows: (1) General form divisions: Periodicals, Societies, Collections, Dictionaries, etc. The placing of this material at the head of a class, or subject, has besides its logical justification the great practical advantage of marking on the shelf, visible even at a distance, the beginning of a new subject. (2) Theory. Philosophy. (3) History. (4) Treatises. General works. (5) Law. Regulation. State relations. (6) Study and teaching. (7) Special subjects and subdivisions of subjects progressing from the more general to the specific and as far as possible in logical order. When among a considerable number of co-ordinate subdivisions of a subject a logical principle of order was not readily discernible, the alphabetical arrangement was preferred. This general principle has also to a certain extent governed the order of the main classes, looking upon the group as a comprehensive class: A Polygraphy; B Philosophy, Religion; C-G Historical sciences; H-K Socio-political sciences, Law; L Education; M Music; N Arts; P Language and Literature; Q Science; R-V Applied sciences, Technology, etc.; Z Bibliography, the Index to the whole.—C. Martel in *Library journal*, 36:414-15, August, 1911.

EXPANSIVE CLASSIFICATION (CUTTER)

The Decimal and the Expansive classifications are used by both large and small libraries. Some account of C. A. Cutter's Expansive classification was published in 1873. Six classifications of progressive fulness were published in 1891-93, and a great part of the seventh is now in print. No general index has yet been published, but each expansion is indexed. In August, 1914, Mr. W. P. Cutter reported on it as follows: "All finished but the last half of technology covering manu-

facture. This is in manuscript but not printed. The index is about half done, in manuscript." The death of the compiler in 1903 delayed the completion of the work, and its unfinished state has militated against its adoption, so that, although it is the most logical, most scientific, and most modern in its nomenclature of the recent systems, it is not used in nearly so many libraries as is the Decimal classification. Its base is alphabetic, but figures are also used in the notation. The use of the 26 letters of the alphabet permits of large classes being spread over several letters, e.g., H, I, J, K are all used for the social sciences.

The main classes of the sixth expansion are:

- A General works
- B Philosophy
- Br Religion
- C Christianity and Judaism
- D Ecclesiastical history
- E Biography
- F History
- G Geography and travels
- H Social sciences
- I Demotics, Sociology
- J Civics, Government, Political science
- K Legislation
- L Sciences and arts
- M Natural history
- N Botany
- O Zoölogy
- P Vertebrates
- Q Medicine
- R Useful arts
- S Constructive arts (Engineering and Building)
- T Fabricative arts (Manufactures and Handicrafts)
- U Art of war
- V Athletic and recreative arts

- W Art, Fine arts
- *X English language
- *Y English and American literature
- Z Book arts

* Particular before general to get a short class mark. In seventh expansion, X is Philology, etc.

Figures are used for both form and local divisions. Cutter's local list, which is planned partly according to geographical and partly according to historical relations, is a most important feature of his scheme. For instance, 39 always means France. Add this to X, language, and we have X₃₉, French language; to F, history, and we have F₃₉, French history, etc. By putting the local mark first, the travel, description, and history of a country may be shelved together, as 39F, French history, 39G, Travel in France.

The Form divisions or Preliminaries are as follows:

- 1 Theory
- 2 Bibliography
- 3 Biography
- 4 History
- 5 Dictionaries
- 6 Handbooks
- 7 Periodicals
- 8 Societies
- 9 Collected works by several authors

The main points that have been made for and against the E.C. are as follows:

For

- (1) Clearness
- (2) Logical co-ordination
- (3) Scholarship
- (4) Modern nomenclature and arrangement
- (5) Flexibility and liberality in the use of alternatives
- (6) Brief notation
- (7) Use (to small extent) of mnemonic element

- (8) Fact that it is based on experiment in an actual library
- (9) Possibility of massing all books in one country together
- (10) Ease of writing and remembering

Against

- (1) Notation confusing: Hard to write and to remember
- (2) Takes more time to shelve books
- (3) All parts not worked out with equal fulness. Might have to use one section in Fifth expansion and another in Sixth expansion
- (4) Lack of complete index

The third and fourth objections to the scheme will be objections no longer when, if ever, the Seventh expansion has been fully worked out and the general index completed.

Richard Bliss, in his Report on classification in the *Library journal*, says: "So far as is known to the reporter, Cutter's revised classification is the only system which allows unlimited contraction or expansion without rearrangement or an objectionable addition to the class mark" (*Library journal*, 14:242, May-June, 1889).

Richardson (*Classification*, 1912, p. 43) says that the E.C. in its final expansion is "a monument of patience and adequate scholarship, and demonstrates, as it has never been shown before in any system, that the alphabetic base is a truly logical and very flexible base."

DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION (DEWEY)

Mr. Melvil Dewey's Decimal classification is more widely used in the United States than any other, has been adopted by some European libraries and booksellers, and is used by the Concilium Bibliographicum at Zurich and the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels. The International Institute published in 1907, in French, a volume of about 2,000 pages, incorporating the final revision of the *Classification bibliographique décimale*, originally issued in parts, 1899-1905. This is an adaptation and expansion of the Decimal classification,

familiarly known as the Belgian modification of the D.C., and is of great use to large and to some highly specialized libraries. The Institute has chosen the D.C. for use in its bibliographical work, which is international, largely because figures are a more universal language than the Roman alphabet. By the use of curves, brackets, the colon, the dash, etc., the Belgian code classifies most minutely. Example: *Salaries in textile industries in England*, 677:331.2 (42). Many of its modifications are more useful for clippings, cards, and pamphlets than for book classification.

The Decimal classification is used in the *A.L.A. Catalogs*, the *A.L.A. Booklist*, and many other library publications. There have been nine editions of the D.C., the first appearing in 1876 and the ninth in 1915. The system is based on Arabic numerals used decimally, supplemented occasionally by letters. The originality of the scheme has been questioned, but while Mr. Dewey was not the first or the only man to use relative location, decimals, or an index, he was the first to combine these in the way that he did and get into print. Shurtleff's *Decimal system for libraries*, published about the middle of the nineteenth century, was a *fixed* location system. Mr. Dewey says that the system of Natale Battezzati (1871), though he copied nothing from it, stimulated, more than any other single system, his study of the problem.

The ten main divisions of the D.C. are as follows:

- 0 General
- 1 Philosophy
- 2 Religion
- 3 Sociology
- 4 Philology
- 5 Science
- 6 Useful arts
- 7 Fine arts
- 8 Literature
- 9 History, Biography, Travel

Figures are also used for form divisions as follows:

- .01 or .1 Theory
- .02 or .2 Outlines, Compendes, etc.
- .03 or .3 Dictionaries
- .04 or .4 Essays
- .05 or .5 Periodicals
- .06 or .6 Societies
- .07 or .7 Study and teaching
- .08 or .8 Polygraphy
- .09 or .9 History

The chief arguments for and against the D.C. are as follows:

For

- (1) Simplicity
- (2) Flexibility
- (3) Brief notation
- (4) Fact that it is based on practical experiment as to the subjects on which books and memoirs have been written and the proportional numbers required by each topic, rather than on *a priori* considerations
- (5) Use of the mnemonic element
- (6) Adaptation to the classification of all kinds of literary material, i.e., clippings, etc.
- (7) Possible universality. Any scheme using the Roman alphabet could not become international
- (8) Use by many libraries
- (9) Index

Against

- (1) Mechanical or artificial

Mr. Lyster answers this objection by saying: "A classification which is frankly arbitrary and artificial is largely independent of the shifting views of the thought of the day. In fact, the measure of its artificiality is, to a great extent, the measure of its utility in the library" (*Library*, 9:341, December, 1897).

Mr. Dewey says (*Public libraries*, 4:266, June, 1899) that it is "wholly impracticable to have a library classification

representing the best philosophical statement of the interrelation of human knowledge up to date. . . . Each year would require modification and changes." The D.C. only pretends to be an intellectual system of pigeonholes.

- (2) Illogical in its arrangement of classes

Examples: Language and Literature widely separated.

Psychology broken in two by the insertion of philosophical systems.

Medicine and Physiology classed with Useful arts instead of with Science.

Amusements (Poker, etc.) classed with Fine arts.

- (3) Inadequate provision for some subjects and too ample provision for others—"Procrustean."

This is due partly to the uniformity of progression by tens to which every class, division, section, and subsection must conform, and partly to the way in which the expansion has been carried out in recent editions.

One factor in the situation is that the D.C. was developed to meet the needs of American libraries. There is no reason why the sections dealing with foreign countries cannot be more minutely subdivided for use in those countries.

- (4) Out-of-date arrangement and old-time nomenclature in some classes. Example: Psychology. This can be remedied in future editions.

- (5) No place provided for some important new subjects

This difficulty grows more serious year by year. Librarians are forced to assign their own numbers to many new subjects; not all choose the same numbers, and uniformity is lost.

- (6) Decimal notation confusing

- (7) Call numbers long. Richardson (*Classification*, 1912, p. 43) says: "In the matter of criteria of use, complete indexing and general practicality, the D.C. is of course without rival. It is somewhat out of proportion at certain points, but perhaps not seriously so. Its general order, though in many classes admirable, is less satisfactory logically than either the E.C. or the Halle system."

It must also be said that the only real test of any scheme is its helpfulness to workers in a library. The Decimal classification has well stood the test of *use*.

Mr. W. S. Biscoe, who did much of the work on the D.C. says: "We do not claim an ideally perfect system in our classification, but simply a scheme devised for the purposes of library and scholarly work, on which a great deal of labor has been spent, and in which hundreds of persons have been consulted, and which will answer most of the practical requirements of library work. You will find it imperfect, you will find some things that seem incongruous, hard to justify it may be, but such as it is, it is my endeavor at the present time to teach you how to use it. Without question it is a useful tool in the hands of a skillful operator."

Many of the libraries using the D.C. modify it greatly. The average public library should not put its biography, with the possible exception of collective biography, in the subdivisions of 920, but should classify it with the subject, e.g., painters with painting, or arrange it alphabetically by the names of the subjects of the biographies, giving it the briefest possible classmark, such as B or 92, or, in libraries which no longer use Cutter author numbers for fiction, using the author number only.

Many public libraries will find it advantageous to arrange English and American literature together, using only 810 and subdivisions or 820 and its subdivisions.

The Brookline, Mass., arrangement of history, description, and travel of each country together should prove convenient in many other libraries. For instance, under 942, English history, the period subdivisions, .01, .02, etc., are kept, but the geographical subdivisions, .1, .2, etc., are used to bring certain topics closely related to English history next to it on the shelves. Thus we have:

- 942.3 Periodicals on English history and archaeology.
 942.4 Bibliography of English history.
 942.5 Local history and travel.
 Book numbers are assigned from the name of the place,
 instead of from the name of the author, thus bringing all
 material about one place together.
 942.6 General travel and description.
 Book numbers are assigned here also from the name of
 the place.
 942.9 Wales—History and travel.
 942.Z Military and naval history of England, which the D.C.
 puts in 355 and 359.

College libraries often prefer to shelve the language and literature of each country together.

Many other possible changes and adaptations might be noted.

The following table is taken from the *Library association record*, v. 7, p. 212, May, 1905.

Number of subjects or forms of literature to which may be allotted—

A one-character mark		
in the E.C.	26 as against	none in the D.C.
A two-character mark		
in the E.C.	676 as against	none in the D.C.
A three-character mark		
in the E.C.	17,576 as against	1,000 in the D.C.
A four-character mark		
in the E.C.	456,976 as against	10,000 in the D.C.
A five-character mark		
in the E.C.	11,881,176 as against	100,000 in the D.C.
Total.....	12,356,430	111,000 in the D.C.

The following examples of Dewey and Cutter class-marks, chosen at random, are of interest as showing the relative length of the marks in the two classifications:

Subjects	Dewey	Cutter
History of Connecticut.....	974.6	F846
History of Italian art.....	709.45	W35
Military aeronautics.....	623.74	UJGB
Protection of water from factory waste....	628.16	SLFQ
Crown and bridge work in dentistry.....	617.69	QHW
Memory.....	152	BIP
Woman suffrage.....	324.3	JMJ or KWZ
Woman in England.....	396.942	KW45

RULES FOR CLASSIFYING

Rules for classification cannot be given here in detail, but a few points are noted for the guidance of the classifier.

In some cases it may be necessary to consult a specialist. Some library bulletins, such as that of the Carnegie library of Pittsburgh, are valuable aids.

The classifier should remember that while the law of classification is likeness, the law for all variation is *use*, and remember that a book on probabilities, which in a college library would probably classify with mathematics or logic, in Hartford, Conn., would be more useful classed with insurance.

It may even be best to allow a book to be attracted to a place where it does not seem to you to belong logically, if that is the place where it will be used most.

It may be best, if there are several numbers making fine distinctions in a subject, to choose one, massing all material there. In classifying the library of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, the local importance of the coal trade caused the collection of all the books bearing on it under 622.33.

Suppose the book covers several subjects: how shall we determine where it will be most useful? It may be brought out under all these subjects in the catalog, but where shall we place it on the shelves? Three forms of this difficulty are: (a) separate pamphlets or books bound together; (b) one book covering two or three subjects; (c) one book covering a wide range of subjects.

If a book covers more than three subdivisions of a more general topic, class with the general topic. If three, or fewer subjects or subdivisions of a subject, class according to (1) relative importance to your library, (2) size (number of pages), (3) position in book. If equally important and equally long, choose the first. If very general, like a general encyclopedia, class according to *form*.

Close Classification.—How closely shall we classify?

There has been much controversy over the question of close or broad classification.

A large library should be more closely classified than a small (unless the small library is a special library).

Any special collection should be minutely classified.

Concrete, well-defined subjects should be more closely classified than abstract ones.

The intelligence and learning of the users of the library affect the question materially. What is meant by "close" classification? This is a relative term, and cannot be defined exactly. Kephart's example, the D.C. number 267.34145, which means, "In a Y.M.C.A. have the general secretary and his assistants, as salaried officers, a right to keep company with ladies?" is very close classification. No general scheme has ever been carried out in all its minuteness to the extent to which certain sections of it have been carried out in highly specialized libraries.

Objections to close classification:

- (1) Necessitates a long and complicated notation.

Advocates say this is unnecessary.

- (2) Can subdivide a list of subjects as minutely as you please, but books are not so easily handled. Many books cover different phases of a subject. In the D.C., chimneys may go in—

697.8	Heating
628.522	Sanitary engineering
628.236	Sewer ventilation
693	Masonry
621.1838	Steam engineering

Beautiful, but suppose your book deals with all these? Your troubles would be less if you had one number for chimneys and had not attempted to draw fine distinctions. On the other hand, in a large library a long hunt through a large class is necessary, if there is no division, for books on particular phases of a subject. Classifications must be made to meet the needs of different people. It is not intended that every library should use every number. While the multiplication of classes for works of the same nature adds greatly to the difficulty of classifying, it makes a given classification usable by more libraries.

- (3) Does not show resources of library.
Nor does any other classification. But it often furnishes enough for ready reference. C. A. Cutter astonished a reader by going straight to the number for Memorial Day, and taking down seven books. Less close classification might have meant running through nineteen shelves on the Civil War.
- (4) Each successive subdivision intensifies the difficulty of keeping all the books on a subject together.
Yes, of keeping all under *one* mark—but they are “together” as much as when more broadly classified. Suppose 500 books on domestic animals are on 25 shelves. Subdivide. They still occupy 25 shelves. All books on domestic animals are as much “together” as before; those on the dog alone are more so.

Some qualifications of a good classifier are:

- (1) Wide knowledge of subjects and of their relations.
An ignoramus cannot classify correctly even if a suitable index be provided.
- (2) Ability to adapt the classification to varying library conditions; knowledge of when to break a rule, how to make common-sense adjustments.
- (3) Understanding of where the reader expects to find things and what books he wants to use together.

The A.L.A. Committee on a code for classifiers, Mr. William Stetson Merrill chairman, appointed in 1912, issued in May,

1914, a limited mimeographed edition of data relating to the proposed Code. It is to be hoped that the Code in its final form will soon be available, and that its use will result in greater consistency in applying certain principles of classification. (See Mr. Merrill's "A code for classifiers," *Library journal*, 37:245-51, 304-10, May-June, 1912.)

BOOK NUMBERS

After a system of classification has been decided on, and books have been assigned to their proper places in the scheme, and marked with the symbols denoting the various classes, it is thought necessary by most librarians to assign to each book a mark to distinguish it from all other books in the same class. This is known as the book number.

Mr. C. A. Cutter defines the book number as "one or more characters used to distinguish an individual book from all others having the same class, shelf, or other generic number."

The book number is simply a translation or abbreviation of a name. The class number may be compared to the family name, or surname; the book number to the Christian name. Its characteristics should be simplicity, brevity, and utility. It is used in order that books may be quickly and accurately called for by the public, found on the shelves, charged to borrowers, and returned to their proper places in the classification.

At first, most librarians who assigned book numbers used the 1, 2, 3 plan under each class, that is, .1 was added to the class number of the first book, .2 to that of the second book in the same class, etc. This was fixed location within the class, and in proportion to the size of the class it had the disadvantages of fixed location as a whole. It separated two books by the same author in the same class, if bought at different times.

Mr. Schwartz, of the New York Apprentices' Library, invented an elaborate scheme of book numbers. Blocks of figures were assigned to certain combinations of letters, and these

were again divided by size (*Library journal*, 3:6-10, March, 1878). Edmands' plan (for fiction) used the author's initial with figures; Larned's plan assigned numbers in series of a hundred to different authors; Fitzpatrick used figures decimally. Langton proposed marking books with abbreviations of the words indicating subject, author, and title. For example, he would mark Dante's *Divine comedy*

Ital. Lit.
Dante
Div. Com.

His idea seemed to be that this system would develop greater intelligence in those using the collection (*Library journal*, 21: 442, October, 1896).

Mr. C. A. Cutter gave us the system of book numbers so widely used today. His first scheme, like most of the early schemes, consisted of figures only. A few librarians still claim that figures alone are less confusing and easier to copy. It seems probable, however, that, if the class number also consists of figures, this plan increases the chance of error. The use of an initial letter at least makes a shorter number possible. Mr. Cutter worked persistently and finally drew up a table, published in 1880, which assigned a letter and two figures to each name. Some exceptions were made. For names beginning with vowels and S, he added a second letter and used one figure, as Am 3. For names beginning Sc, he used three letters and one figure, as Sco 8 for Scott. Fewer marks were needed, but the use of two kinds of book numbers did not seem desirable.

The next step taken was the revision of the Cutter author tables by Miss Kate E. Sanborn. The Cutter-Sanborn tables use one initial and either two or three figures, three figures being used in the largest classes. These tables are not on the basis of the old tables and cannot be used to supplement them.

Mr. Cutter brought out later a new edition of his tables, worked out on the basis of the first, with the same arrange-

ment of the vowels and S. These tables can be used, for large collections, to supplement Cutter's first tables.

The advantage of the Cutter-Sanborn tables is that they serve equally well for collections of books varying greatly in size. Even though you may not use more than two figures in general, yet the third is there if needed.

Very small libraries do not need the tables, but can use the initial letter of the author's name followed by one figure, as A1, A2, etc.

Book numbers are not always assigned from the author's name. In biography they are assigned from the name of the biographe^e, or person written about, so that all lives of the same person may stand together on the shelves. In genealogy, it is better to assign the Cutter number from the name of the family; in author bibliography, from the bibliographe^e; and in town histories, from the name of the town. Used in this way, the book number aids in the classification, in addition to distinguishing the individual book.

Two books by the same author may be in the same class. In order to distinguish between the two some librarians add figures. For example, if Thackeray's first book be marked T36, his second in that class will be marked T361, etc. This cannot be done if the three-figure Cutter-Sanborn tables are used, without making very long book numbers. It also uses up numbers likely to be needed later for names of other authors.

A better solution of this difficulty is the assignment of a title mark. This may be an arbitrary mark, or may be taken from the first letter of the title, as T36n (Thackeray's *Newcomes*), T36p (Thackeray's *Pendennis*), C77pi (Cooper's *Pilot*).

Different editions are sometimes distinguished by the addition of a figure to the book number. Or they may be distinguished by the addition of lower-case letters.

Time numbers are occasionally used in place of the ordinary book numbers especially in the classes of science and

useful arts, to arrange books by date of publication. For full explanation of time numbers, see *Library journal*, 10:246-47, 1885.

Special author schemes, in which the book number helps to classify the book, are used when it is thought desirable to keep all material by and about an author together. A much-used scheme is the following:

- A Bibliography. Authorship controversies
- B Biography
- C Biographical collateral
- D Higher criticism
- E Minor criticism (textual)
- F Sources; allusions; learning
- G Miscellany; concordance; societies, etc.
- H Quotations, tales and plays from, adaptations, condensations, etc.
- I Complete works without notes
- J Complete works with notes
- K Complete works in translations
For living authors put works complete to date with the I, J, and K.
- L Partial collections without notes
- M Partial collections with notes
- N Partial collections in translations
- O-Z Individual works

The necessity of the book number is being questioned by some librarians today. Many up-to-date libraries have stopped using it for fiction, while some no longer use it for other books. The New York Public Library uses no book numbers for its reference collection, or for the circulating collection in the main building. Usage varies in the branches.

Some libraries use the accession numbers, or numbers assigned to books showing the order in which they came into the library, in record work, in place of the ordinary book

number. This practice can never become universal, as not all modern libraries use accession numbers.

Other libraries content themselves with writing author and title, with copy number, if there are several copies of the book, on the book cards used in recording books borrowed.

The growing practice of admitting readers to the shelves, wherever the size of the collection does not prohibit this, has doubtless influenced some librarians in this matter of dropping book numbers. The book number, taken with the class number (the two forming the "call number" of the book), is not only a shorthand name for the book, but a device for securing exact order on the shelves. When readers are admitted to the shelves, exact order becomes an unrealizable dream, and one reason for using book numbers becomes less forcible. Some of the difficulties met with when the book number is dropped are as follows:

- (1) Many books are lettered wrongly for purposes of arrangement by author's name under class and many are not lettered at all. In the case of government documents one does not ordinarily find the official author's name on the back of the book.
- (2) When an author has written both under his own name and under a pseudonym, sometimes the real name, sometimes the pseudonym will appear on the back of the book.
- (3) In biography, both readers and pages are often confused between the names of the author and of the biographee.
- (4) Different editions of a book cannot be arranged in any systematic order.
- (5) In analytical references, the reader generally contents himself with writing the class number and the author and title of the analytical, whereas the assistant must have the author and title of the book itself, in default of a book number, in order to find the right book. This is a serious difficulty in a large library.

In deciding whether to use book numbers or not, it is necessary to consider carefully the type of library, whether open or closed shelf, etc., the intelligence of borrowers and pages, the time spent in assigning book numbers and renewing labels, and the time lost in getting and replacing books without the aid of the book number.

There seems to be no good reason for retaining book numbers for fiction in an open-shelf library. In other classes the matter is still debatable.

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XX

SHELF DEPARTMENT

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This chapter considers the following topics: the shelf-list, care of books on the shelves, book-supports, labels, dummies, and the inventory. No consideration is given to classification and book numbers, which, generally speaking, determine the order of arrangement on the shelves, nor to the kinds of cases, nor to the arrangement of the cases—wall cases, alcoves, floor cases, or stacks—upon which the books are placed. These circumstances which condition his work are, as a rule, outside the province of the curator of the shelves.

It was found upon investigation that there is so little definite information in print on the subject of the shelf department, that, to make this chapter representative of American library practice, it was necessary to send out a questionnaire to determine what is actually done in libraries of different sizes. Replies were received from 130 libraries—22 from libraries of from 1,000 to 10,000 volumes, 64 from libraries of from 10,000 to 50,000, 31 from libraries of from 50,000 to 200,000 volumes, and 17 from libraries of about 200,000 and over.

Shelf departments.—The work of the shelf department is done in the smaller libraries by the assistants more or less interchangeably; in libraries of from 50,000 to 150,000 volumes the work is usually done by the cataloging and circulating departments. Of the thirteen larger libraries reporting, eight had a regularly organized shelf department. The functions of the department differ quite widely; in all of the libraries, placing books on the shelves (including arranging for space, labeling the shelves, keeping them in order, making and keeping track of

dummies) and taking the inventory are done by the department; the discarding of books is done by it in seven instances; labeling of the books is done by the shelf department in five libraries, and in four, lists of books to be replaced are made by it.

At the Boston public library, and the New York public library, the shelf department arranges the scheme of classification and classifies the books, and at the Boston public library the assignment of shelf numbers and the shelf-listing are also included in the work of the shelf department. At Harvard the functions of the shelf department have been taken over by the catalog department.

Shelf-list.—The shelf-list is a list of the books of a library in the order in which they stand on the shelves. The shelf-list is used as a stockbook by which an inventory of the books can be taken; as an aid in classifying (reference to a list of the books already in given classes will help to secure consistent classification); in assigning book numbers, to prevent assigning the same number to more than one book in each class; as a subject catalog (in smaller libraries and as a preliminary catalog in organizing); as a convenient key to the accession book when only the call number of a book is known and as a substitute for the accession book by the addition to the shelf-card of price, source, and other details. In Gary, Ind., the same card is used for order card and for shelf-list, the combined card together with a numerical shelf-list record on sheets answering the purpose of an accession book as well.

One of the smaller libraries reports a subject use of the shelf-list that might be widely adopted. In all the forms of literature, poetry, essays, etc., where the catalog would practically repeat the shelf-list, a card is inserted in the catalog referring to the shelf-list, as, "Poetry. For complete list of poetry see shelf-list in office."

As recently as 1896 it was stated (Public Libraries 1:42) that the "shelf-list is commonly kept on sheets, but many practical

librarians believe it best kept on cards." Library practice has so completely changed since then that 104 of the 130 libraries reporting use the card shelf-list for practically all purposes, six more are re-writing on cards or expect to do so soon, and ten others use cards for special classes, as biography or fiction.

The sheet shelf-list is still used for special purposes, and the New York sheet is recommended for periodicals (making four columns to a page for accession and volume numbers) and for continuations. Some of the large city library systems keep the union shelf-list on cards specially ruled to leave space for the initials of each branch; a few still use sheets.

The earlier practice used the $5\frac{1}{2} \times 12\frac{1}{2}$ cm. index card for the shelf-list, because it is convenient to handle and economical of storage space, but the use of the $7\frac{1}{2} \times 12\frac{1}{2}$ cm. standard catalog card is growing, and the fact that this size makes possible the use of Library of Congress cards has brought about a general adoption of the $7\frac{1}{2} \times 12\frac{1}{2}$ cm. card for the shelf-list also.

The items essential for the shelf-list in all types of libraries are: Author's name, surname only, or forenames with subject fulness, brief title (some libraries make a point of giving binder's title, but as the title selected by the binder might not be that you would choose in rebinding, that hardly seems worth while), call number, accession number, if the accession book be used (95 libraries out of 130 still use accession numbers), and the number of volumes. A number of the larger libraries give date also. Those using copy numbers to designate duplicate copies write them over or after the corresponding accession number. In Pittsburgh a card with numbers printed in columns is used for largely duplicated titles; lines drawn under the numbers show how many copies the library possesses. The number is crossed out when a copy is discarded and the missing copies are checked in pencil when inventoried. Accession numbers are written on the back and consecutive numbers can be blocked. Most of the libraries that do not keep an accession book enter

place of publication, price, date of bill, and sometimes source and publisher on the shelf-list card. In libraries where oversize books are shelved separately and where the size is not indicated by the book number, the symbols Q or F should be included in the shelf-list entry.

All the volumes of a work and all duplicate copies of a book are as a rule entered on the same card. When numerous, the accession numbers can be arranged in columns below the title.

Where the shelf-list is depended on for a subject catalog, its usefulness is increased by inserting in it entries for important cross references. These will, of course, contain only call number, author, and title.

Inventory.—The inventory of the books as distinguished from shelf-revision is done by comparing the shelves with a complete list of all the books that should be there.

Practically all the libraries of less than 10,000 reported taking an annual inventory, two-thirds of those in the second class, one-half of the libraries of from 50,000 to 200,000 so reported, while only three out of seventeen of the largest libraries take an annual inventory. Fourteen libraries, among them Newark, Columbia University, and the New York state library, take the inventory biennially, twelve take it irregularly, several take it continuously; only two reported that they did not take it at all. Several libraries take the inventory of reference books more frequently than of circulating books, and a few libraries having only a small collection on open shelves inventory them every few weeks, but the great majority of open-shelf libraries find once a year often enough to take an inventory, and few make any distinction between open and closed shelves.

The inventory is usually taken at the time of least circulation, modified by the vacations of the staff, except in the case of the half-dozen libraries in which the process is continuous.

The usual way of taking the inventory is for two persons to work together, one reading the shelf-list, the other examining the shelves (in some libraries the process is reversed, the reading being from the books on the shelves), a list being made of missing books by call number. In case of more than one copy of a book, the accession number is also read. After a session of reading, the missing books are looked for in the circulation records, at the mending table, on the binder's lists, or among books withdrawn for any of the library processes. The shelves are re-read from these lists and each subsequent step gone over several times. The lists usually contain only call number at first, but after a second or third reading, author, title, and accession numbers are added to aid in identifying the books. Sometimes the shelf-list card is turned on end to indicate missing books, until the circulation is gone over, but there is always a certain risk of the cards being jostled into place and the record lost. It is done commonly only in the smaller libraries, but it is always somewhat hazardous; the insertion of a slip of contrasting color or size is a better plan.

The majority of libraries wait to discard missing books until a year has elapsed, and many defer it until after the next inventory has been taken.

The methods of keeping account of books missing in inventory vary, but the great majority of libraries keep some sort of record. A record book is the favorite plan; others keep a list on cards or slips, while a dozen libraries keep the typewritten inventory sheets until the next inventory. Besides the chief object of learning what books are missing, the inventory has several highly important incidental results. It detects misplaced books, errors of classification, gilding, marking book-labels and plates, and clerical errors in the shelf-list.

The Enoch Pratt Library has found it useful to compare the branch shelf-list with the union list before taking the inventory at the branches, thus eliminating possible errors in the two records.

A new method was adopted in the St. Louis Public Library in 1917, that of counting the books instead of inventorying them. This count was taken by 153 members of the staff on a Sunday morning and was finished in four hours. It was decided henceforth to take a standard inventory only once in five years and to repeat the counting of the volumes annually.

Book-supports.—The great majority of libraries use the old Library Bureau book-support. Libraries equipped with the Art Metal Construction stack or the Snead stack naturally use the ingenious and effective supports made for the shelves by these companies. Bricks covered with paper or binder's cloth are used by a number of libraries in New England, and by some libraries these bricks are also marked with the name of the adjacent class and serve as shelf-labels as well. The bricks are cheap, substantial, do not damage the books, and are found satisfactory by the libraries using them. The New Bedford Public Library instead of covering the bricks uses grey paste-board boxes into which the bricks are slipped, thus saving time at the paste table. The Crocker book-support was not mentioned by the libraries reporting, but it is useful to keep a shelf of unbound pamphlets standing upright.

The Democrat Printing Company of Madison, Wis., makes a book-support that is used by a number of libraries in the Middle West. It consists merely of an angle of plain japanned metal. A number of the smaller libraries use a sheet-iron angle made at local foundries. The Trenton, N.J., library reports the Reliable book-support, sold by the Tower Co., 306 Broadway, New York, as very satisfactory because of a rounded edge that flares back, thus preventing injury to the leaves when a book is carelessly pushed against it. For table use some libraries cover the L.B. support with cloth or leather; one library reports that they have the Democrat Printing Company support covered with leather at 25 cents each.

The Cleveland public library has a very ornamental book-support for desk and table use made of wood to match the woodwork of the branch, about the size of two octavo volumes (10 in.×7 in.×3 in.), heavily leaded at the bottom, the lower side felted to keep it from scratching. The Yale book-support is probably the best for oversize books, but unfortunately it is no longer manufactured.

Book-labels.—Librarians are practically agreed upon the necessity of putting the call number on the back of the book. The earlier and most commonly used method is to affix a gummed label. When this is done a little ammonia applied with a brush to remove the sizing and a coat of French spirit varnish over the label will do much to keep it in place. An increasing number of libraries now write the call number directly on the book itself, using India ink on light-colored bindings and white ink on the darker books, using labels only when it is impossible to write on the bindings. A coat of French spirit varnish applied half an hour after the ink has been applied is quite necessary to prevent the white ink from wearing off.

Many of the large libraries have their call numbers gilded or stamped in black on all bound periodicals and on all rebound books, some have their own binderies gild the call number at once on all books that are not likely to need rebinding in the near future, while a few others have the gilded numbers put on by a page or assistant, a binder's gilding equipment being obtained.

The appearance of the shelves is greatly improved if a uniform distance from the bottom be adopted for the labels or written call numbers; this should be deviated from only when the binding necessitates it. A notched guide of cardboard is handier to use than a ruler.

Placing of books on the shelves.—This is essentially a local problem, in which, however, a few general tendencies may be

detected. There is a disposition on the part of libraries using the decimal classification to regard the relation of subjects and the use of the books rather than the numerical order of the classification; for example, to arrange philology next to literature, travel and history together under country. The so-called "Ribbon arrangement" of fiction has found favor in some open-shelf libraries. Fiction in this plan is arranged on a given shelf, the fifth or sixth from the bottom usually, through a continuous series of tiers. This has the twofold advantage of scattering the crowd of fiction readers and of increasing the probability of their discovering the existence and possible attractions of other classes of books.

Dummies.—Dummies to indicate the location of books shelved in other than the regular place are commonly used, the usual form being blocks of wood 5×8 inches in length and breadth, and from $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch to an inch in width, bearing the call number of the book and its location. The question asked, "Have you found any device to take the place of the ordinary wooden dummies? If so please describe it," brought forth several interesting replies. At the Berkshire Athenaeum, Pittsfield, Mass., a pasteboard box the size and shape of an ordinary book is used. This is made for the library by a neighboring box factory at much less than the cost of wood dummies. In Dover, N.H., a 5×8 piece of binder's board is used with the label on the side.

At Utica, N.Y., dummies have been abandoned and a slip file is kept of all books shelved in unusual places. At the Pratt Institute free library lists of books not shelved in the main collection are posted on the ends of the cases where they might be looked for. This plan has worked admirably.

A very general feeling was expressed that the wooden dummies are unsatisfactory because easily misplaced. Several libraries have discarded them entirely, depending on location marks on the shelf-list or in the catalog. Where the changes

of location are too extensive or too temporary to make it worth while changing the catalog and shelf-list, the plan used at Utica or at Pratt Institute is worth considering.

Shelf-labels.—The satisfactory marking of cases and shelves is a difficult matter. The L.B. tin label holder No. 1369 is commonly used, but many experiments have been made to find something which shall be clear, effective, and even ornamental. A number of libraries have had the fore edge of wooden shelves grooved, and labeled cards are slipped into the grooves. Some paste neatly printed labels directly to the shelves, washing them off and renewing them when they become worn. In some recent buildings very handsome labels of brass or wood are placed over the cases. In Cleveland these are made to match the woodwork, with the subject name in gilded letters. These are held in place by screw heads in the case, fitting into eyelets in the back of the label.

At East Orange, N.J., an upright japanned holder is used (like a magnified L.B. shelf label holder on end), the face 10 inches high by 3 inches wide, with a 5-inch projection at the back for a brace. This contains a card with this printed inscription: "*Read.* In yard-wide section of the shelves from top to bottom are arranged books on the following subjects. [Then follows in hand-printing a list of the subjects with class numbers.] Under each number of the classification are placed books on the subject it represents, arranged alphabetically by authors." This label is placed in the center of the shelf on the level of the eye in every section of the book stacks. The librarian reports, "Many persons have expressed approval of them and satisfaction in their use."

Revision of the shelves.—In response to the question, "By what plan or system do you keep open shelves in order?" several libraries answered frankly, "We don't," and many of the replies showed that the problem was one for which they had as yet found no satisfactory solution. Twenty-five libraries of all sizes

report a daily revision of open shelves, and the practice ranges from that to "several times a year." There is a pretty general agreement that fiction and juveniles, at least, should be arranged daily.

The librarian of one well-ordered library writes that the fiction shelves are arranged the first thing every morning, the whole staff taking part, while the rest of the classes are divided among the assistants, each being responsible for the order of a certain section. This method of fixing individual responsibility is practiced by a number of libraries. One writes that the assignments are changed monthly, a plan that has the two-fold arrangement of keeping the assistants up to the mark and of familiarizing them gradually with the whole collection.

The majority of the libraries report that this work is done by the assistants. In libraries having apprentices this duty is often delegated to them. In many of the larger libraries it is done by pages. At Pittsburgh the pages put slips of colored paper (each page using a separate color) in the books they put up and these are revised daily by a member of the staff; by this means mistakes are minimized. In some cases high-school boys are employed to put up books and to revise the shelves. Where the press of work is so great that the revision cannot be done by the staff, it would doubtless be well to employ intelligent assistance of this kind. It can, however, be made the means of enlarging the book knowledge of the assistants, while leaving it entirely to pages is seldom satisfactory.

Cleaning.—A majority of libraries report continuous dusting, some have periodical house-cleanings instead, and about thirty report a combination of the two plans. The work is done by the janitor in a majority of the smaller libraries, and a dust cloth (the "dustless" variety preferred) seems to be the usual implement, varied occasionally by lamb's wool dusters.

Some form of suction dusting machine is used in a number of the larger libraries. In the larger buildings these are of the

stationary or installed type, connected with the various floors by upright pipes to which hose with nozzles for different kinds of work may be attached.

The majority of the libraries reporting use the Kenney system installed, which appears from the reports to meet expectations fairly well. It has not superseded the washing by hand of wood or marble floors; indeed it seems probable that no machine can, and opinions differ as to its complete efficiency in keeping shelves clean, Boston reporting that it has to be supplemented by a final wiping with a cloth. Most of the libraries report that the attachments are too heavy to be used by a woman and that when hose is light enough to be easily handled it will soon collapse, making it expensive and altogether impracticable. No data could be obtained as to the relative cost as compared with hand work; several librarians write that it costs them just as much to clean as formerly, but that the result is much more thorough and satisfactory. The cost of the machine varies so, depending on the size of the buildings, that no definite figures can be given, but \$1,900 was the lowest quoted.

The portable machines that can be attached to an electric light circuit are smaller and much less expensive, costing from \$100 to \$150; they can be operated by a woman and seem more practical for the smaller libraries. At Yale they experimented with one for use in the stack, although there is a vacuum pump installed in the building, and they find it more economical and effective than the stationary one.

In the State Library at Albany a new system, that of the Richmond Radiator Company, has recently been installed, replacing a system operated by steam pressure. This requires less power to run and gives fifteen-pound pressure against eight. It is so new that comparatively little has yet been done in the way of book cleaning, but the engineer reports that the demonstrations have been successful. The tendency seems to be away from the installed steam pressure systems with their

heavy apparatus and toward the use of the lighter electric machines.

Supplies.—The subject of supplies has been dealt with under many of the preceding topics. Concerning amounts needed a word may be said. For the shelf-list one card to a volume is sufficient to allow. An offset for spoiled cards will be provided by the need of only one card for a set of several volumes. Guides will be needed somewhat less frequently than in the catalog, since it is mainly for official use; one guide to every two or three hundred cards is sufficient.

The shelf-list cards can be kept in tin trays, preferably covered trays, with a rod, a dozen trays sufficing for 10,000 volumes.

In small libraries where expense has to be seriously considered, the cards can be kept in sorting trays, and one library has found cake-tins painted black and fitted with wooden blocks an inexpensive substitute for the regulation tray. The larger libraries are generally using the regular catalog card outfits with the single removable drawers.

Dauids' Letterine white ink, made by Davids & Co., 127 William St., New York, is used for marking the backs of books. It is put on with a Judge's Quill steel pen No. 312, or a Telegraphic pen No. 1876, which must be kept absolutely clean; dipping the pen into a wet sponge gives the best results. After half an hour apply French spirit varnish.

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XXI

LOAN WORK

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Cleveland Public Library

Definition	Registration records
Qualifications of assistants	Inter-branch records
Records: Charging systems	Rules and regulations
Dummy system	Printed rules
Ledger systems	Who may borrow books
Card-charging systems	How many books
Public library charging systems	Length of loan period
Browne	Fines
Newark	Reserves
Simplified Newark	Restricted books
College and reference library charging systems	Access to shelves
New York State Library	Pay duplicate collection
University library systems	Health precautions
University of Illinois	Statistics
	Supplies
	Publicity
	Bibliography

Definition.—Loan work is that part of a library's activity which results directly in bringing its books into the hands of the public for home reading and study. Circulating and issue are other terms in common use to denote this phase of library work. Its scope includes methods of recording the issue and return of books, rules and regulations insuring their equitable and safe distribution, supervision of the room where the books are shelved, and ways and means of promoting a greater borrowing use of the library by the public.

The relative importance of loan work in any library varies greatly with the latter's purpose. In a reference library, pure

and simple, it is of course non-existent; in **state**, proprietary, and special libraries it plays but a minor part and has but few difficulties and problems; in the college and university library it is much overshadowed by the more important reference and technical departments. But in the public circulating library, as commonly understood, loan work reaches its fullest development. There it constitutes a very important part of the library's work, by far the most important if measured quantitatively. To the public it is the library's chief justification.

Qualifications of assistants.—Successful loan work calls for distinctively human qualities rather than a scholar's equipment or technical training. It is the point of immediate and constant contact between the library and its public, and makes or breaks the library's reputation for service and courtesy. Loan work requires efficient assistants that the public may derive the greatest possible advantage from the books, *their* property. It should be animated by a spirit of service and welcome. This spirit can be created in part by **non-irksome** rules and regulations, by convenient catalogs, accessible books, and an attractive building, but chiefly by a cordial staff, ready and able to help because of a knowledge and love of books and a sincere desire to be of service. The qualities desirable in loan department assistants are health, tact, a sense of humor, dignity, ability to "size up" people, sympathy, courtesy, energy, firmness in upholding rules, self-control, quickness, and accuracy. Essential are a considerable acquaintance with the books in the library, a knowledge of the work in its other departments, and a familiarity with catalogs and bibliographic aids. A knowledge of the city, its people, clubs, schools, churches, business interests, and welfare agencies is equally desirable. Qualities which will quickly ruin an assistant's usefulness are officiousness, indifference, an institutional air, and superficiality.

Records: Charging systems.—Of chief importance, given the collection of books and the spirit of hospitality, is a charging system that will so record the loan of books as to assure their return, place all patrons on an equal footing as to privileges, and furnish essential information about books and borrower.

Of charging systems there have been many. To enumerate them all would be as useless as difficult, as the great majority are now obsolete or used only in the library of their origin. It must suffice therefore to describe only a few which are of interest in the historical development of library science, which are in extended use, or which seem particularly adapted to certain types of libraries.

There is no *best* charging system. Different systems are suited to different types and sizes of libraries. That system is best for any particular library which in the loaning of books combines most effectively simplicity, economy in cost, convenience, accuracy, and speed, taking into account both patrons and library. It should answer necessary questions readily and with little or no inconvenience to the borrower.

Charging systems may keep any or all of the three records following: borrower's record, book record, and time record. The borrower's record enables the librarian to ascertain what books are loaned to a given borrower at a given time and when they are due, the book record will show by whom any particular book has been borrowed and when it is due, while the function of the time record is to show what books are due on a given day. These records vary in importance with the type and character of the library and the rules by which it is governed. As a system keeps one, two, or three of these records it is called a single-, double-, or triple-entry system. In a college or reference library the book record is the important record, while a public library, with a large and active clientèle in large part unknown to the librarian and making

demands often in excess of the book stock, finds it necessary to limit very strictly the period for which a book may be taken. This makes the time record of first importance. In libraries which limit the borrower to one or two books, the borrower's record is of less use. When, however, an indefinite number of books may be taken and these for an indefinite time, as, for example, in a library primarily devoted to the needs of a staff engaged in research work, then the borrower's record becomes an important one.

Dummy system.—One of the earliest charging methods is the dummy system, still used in many Sunday-school libraries. The borrower is represented by a wooden dummy or a card inscribed with his name. On this dummy are written the call number of the book borrowed and the date due. The book is given to the reader and its place on the shelf is taken by the dummy. On its return, after locating the reader's dummy by call number, and canceling the charge, the book is returned to its place on the shelf. Dummies not in use are kept in alphabetical order. For libraries with few books and few borrowers, no access to shelves, and a fixed location system of shelving, this method is as satisfactory as any. It certainly is inexpensive.

Ledger systems.—Equally early were ledger methods of recording books. They existed in great variety. The usual method was to keep the account with the borrower. Originally the charges were made in daybook form, a simple daily record of books borrowed in the order of their issue. When this became too cumbersome, the charges were posted to a ledger. To each borrower was assigned a page and folio number, and on this page were recorded and canceled the books taken by him. The ledger method could also be used for the book record, while the daybook really constituted a time record. Ledger systems, often on the loose-leaf plan, are still in use in connection with classroom libraries. The indicator system, still widely

used in Canada and Great Britain, but never viewed with favor in American libraries, should also be mentioned. The visible index of the modern business office is a form of indicator that may yet be found suitable for loan records. For fuller accounts of these earlier systems see Plummer, "Loan Systems," in *Papers Prepared for the World's Library Congress* (pp. 896-906).

Card-charging systems.—Present-day charging systems usually keep their records by means of cards, which by their presence or absence, their relative position, written or stamped dates and numbers, or some device, as color or tab, give the information desired. In the reader's record the cards are necessarily arranged alphabetically by reader's name, or numerically by his registration number. Where it is not a primary record, it may be kept incidentally or at least some information about the borrower made evident by the use of colored or tab cards, or by metal clips, as the ingenuity of the librarian may devise. In general the reader's record and the book record are best kept by registration number of reader and call number of book, respectively.

The time record, however, is easily kept in connection with other records by these devices so common in business houses. Dated tabs or metal clips on book cards may indicate the date of return and facilitate the discovery of overdue books in the book record. Colored cards may be used either in the book or in the reader's record for the same purpose. Colored cards are also in common use to differentiate between classes of borrowers with differing privileges, or to distinguish books, by classes, length of loan period, or in other ways. Colors are used less than they were twenty years ago. Tabs and metal guides are probably used less extensively than their convenience might justify.

Public library charging systems.—The two charging systems in most general use, the Browne and the Newark, are both

single-entry systems and time records. Both work well in smaller libraries. In libraries of considerable circulation the Newark system is better than the Browne. There are many variations in both systems. The limits of this chapter will permit but a brief description of a typical variety of each.

Browne charging system.—The Browne system keeps only a time record of books loaned and incidentally a not very convenient book record. Essential are (1) a reader's pocket of stout manilla on which are written the name and address of the reader, and, if desired, his registration number. A reader has as many pockets as he is privileged to draw books; (2) a plain or printed book pocket, pasted on the front or, better, the back cover of the book, and bearing its call number and frequently accession number; (3) a book card, of light bristol board, inscribed with author, title, call number, and, if desired, accession number. Only the call number is absolutely essential. This card is kept in the book pocket, when the book is on the shelves, and in the reader's pocket, of the person borrowing, when the book is out of the library; (4) a dating slip, tipped into the book, on which the date¹ of borrowing or date due is stamped. The book pocket or the flyleaves of the book can be used, but this is undesirable.

The reader's pocket is kept in the library and in one of two files, depending upon whether the reader has or has not borrowed a book. When the reader has borrowed no book, the pocket is in a file arranged alphabetically by readers' names. In charging, the book card is taken from the book pocket and slipped into the reader's pocket, easily found in the alphabetical file, and the date due stamped on the dating slip. The reader may then depart. The book card held in the reader's pocket is filed first by the date when the book is due and then by call number or by author and title. On the book's return the book card,

¹It is to be noted that in all these systems the date of issue or the date due may be used. The date due is less confusing to readers.

found by the date on the dating slip and the call number on the book, is replaced in the book pocket and the book returned to the shelf. The reader's pocket has either another book card inserted, if the borrower again withdraws a book, or it is returned to the alphabetical file of readers' pockets. In some libraries the borrower carries the readers' pockets when they are not in use. This seems less advisable.

In this system the reader is usually required to wait until the returned book is discharged ("slipped" or "carded") before he can borrow another. This delay can be avoided by slipping into the book just returned the book card of the book taken in its place and leaving to a later time the adjustment of records. This short cut, however, much increases the chance of error.

The Browne system has certain decided advantages, especially for the smaller library. They are: economy in supplies, as cards and pockets are not used up in stamping; simplicity and speed in charging; the convenience of the reader's pocket as a receptacle for all manner of notes and memoranda pertaining to the reader or the books in his possession, as fines, reserves, etc., and the saving of time in sending overdue notices, since the reader's name and address on the reader's pocket are immediately available. The disadvantages are: the very much greater space occupied by the readers' pockets; slowness in discharging of books; and the difficulty experienced in having a number of assistants working with the files at the same time. These combine to make it impracticable for a library with a large circulation. Nor does it lend itself readily to granting liberal book privileges, as a reader's pocket is required for every book loaned.

Newark charging system.—This system is widely used in public libraries, though with innumerable minor differences. Like the Browne, it is a time record, keeping an incidental, rather inconvenient book record. Its essentials are a book

pocket, a book card, and a dating slip for each book and a reader's card for every patron. The book pocket, book card, and dating slip are practically the same as those in the Browne system.

The reader's card bears the reader's name, address, registration number, and date of its expiration. Cards may vary in size, though it is desirable that for any library the book card and reader's card be uniform in size so that either can be held conveniently by the book pocket. This card is ruled into columns headed "Due" (or "Taken") and "Returned."

Books are charged as follows: The reader presents his card with the desired book. The attendant removes the book card from the book pocket and stamps date due (or of issue) on the reader's card (first column), and on the book card (second column), and on the dating slip, and writes the reader's number on the book card (first column). The reader's card is then slipped into the book pocket and the reader permitted to depart. The book card is filed later by date and call number. On the return of the book the reader's card is slipped from the book pocket, stamped with date of return in the second column, and given to the reader, who is then free to borrow another book. At convenience the book card is found in the file and replaced in the book pocket. The stamped dating slip and the call number on the book pocket make this possible.

The greatest variations in the Newark system are in respect to the reader's card and its use. One card only may be used and on it be charged one, two, or any number of books; or, two cards for each reader, one for classed books only, the other for classed books or fiction. The use of two cards is, however, on the decrease. Many libraries still limit their borrowers as to the number of books of fiction that may be loaned. A two-card system is often used where the borrower is limited to one volume of fiction or one seven-day book or in other ways, one of the cards being used for the class of books so limited.

In one-card systems such limiting is accomplished in various ways, as by the use of variously colored stamped dates, by writing call number, by dividing the card into halves, by stamping down for the limited books and up (beginning at the foot of the last column) for the unlimited books and in other ways. If it is necessary to limit fiction, seven-day books, or any portion of the collection, the last plan seems on the whole the most practicable. In most libraries the reader's card is always in the reader's possession, though some small libraries find it possible to care for it when it is not in use. It is possible to keep the card in the library when it is in use, filed by reader's name or number. This furnishes a reader's record in addition to the usual time record and makes a double-entry system. School libraries frequently follow this plan.

Advantages of the Newark system are speed in discharging, with a simplifying of the routine at the point of greatest congestion, i.e., the return desk, where fines, renewals, transfers, and other matters must be considered; a more compact tray of book cards, and a permanent record on the book card to show the use of the book. Its chief superiority, however, is that it readily permits an extension of privileges. An unlimited number of books may easily be issued on one card, and in a branch system readers may borrow and return books at different branches on the same card.

Disadvantages are a more lengthy charge; greater liability to error, either in omitting or in writing incorrectly the registration number on the book card, or in incorrect stamping on the reader's card. The former may result in loss of the book or in sending a delinquent notice to the wrong borrower; the latter will make it appear that the borrower has more or fewer books than he actually has.

In both of these single-entry systems renewal of books by telephone is attended with difficulties, the reserving of books is

a laborious process, and a proper safeguarding against the return of books from homes afflicted with contagious diseases, even with the closest co-operation from the health department, is not easy.

Simplified Newark charging system.—A simplified Newark system is finding favor with mid-west librarians, especially in Iowa and Wisconsin. In this system the readers' card is omitted. The registration cards, filed alphabetically, are kept convenient and are consulted for the registration number of the borrower when books are loaned. Book cards and dating slips are stamped in the usual way.

The chief advantage is the elimination of troubles due to forgotten or lost readers' cards. Time and cost of materials are saved also in the making out and replacing of cards. Readers do, however, have to wait until their cards are looked up, and it is necessary to inquire the name each time. While still an experiment, more and more libraries have adopted it and apparently to their satisfaction.

Charging systems for college and reference libraries.—The difference between public and reference libraries appears also in the charging system used. A public library has a large number of patrons, many of them not known to the librarian, and a comparatively large circulation. Its books are in demand and its readers frequently less inclined to meet their obligations. As a result a short original loan is desirable and a close follow-up necessary. In the reference and smaller college library the patrons are few, though usually their needs are many and varied and the circulation per volume small. The users are known and responsible.

The larger number of books allowed and the longer loan period make it desirable to know how many and what books readers have, while the constant demands for a particular book to meet a definite need make the book record necessary. The charging system evolved to meet these conditions has

usually a reader's record and a book record and permits an indefinite loan period, the book, however, being subject to recall.

New York State Library system.—The system in the New York State Library may be taken as representative of a college or reference library. It has a reader's card, inscribed with name and address of reader, and always kept at the library filed alphabetically by name. A stiff blank manilla slip, on which the call number is written when a book is withdrawn, serves as a book card. There is no book pocket or dating slip. The process of charging is very simple. On presentation of a book the attendant copies its call number upon the blank manilla slip and adds the name of the reader, who may then depart with the book. The attendant adds the date of issue to the temporary book card and writes the call number and date of issue on the permanent reader's card. This is replaced in its file and the book card is filed numerically by call number. The return is as simple. The manilla book card is found by the call number. The reader's card is located in its file by the name on the book card. The temporary book card is destroyed or given to the reader as a receipt. The reader's card is stamped with the date of return and replaced in the file.

One great advantage of this method is its economy in labor and materials, as neither book pockets, dating slips, nor book cards for the many books in the collection need be provided. It is better to make temporary book cards as needed than to make them in advance for all the books, most of which will never be taken from the building. This system is slow, but with a small issue of books that is of less consequence. It omits the time record and makes necessary a periodical examination of the book cards for books that should be recalled.

University library systems.—The problem for the large university library is not so simple. As in the reference library, the need for a borrower's and a book record is felt, but with a

student body in the thousands a time record is also found to be most desirable, and as a result triple-entry systems have been devised. A possible compromise is to charge books to faculty and to students in different ways, eliminating for each the record least essential.

University libraries are usually closed shelf libraries, a call slip being handed in for desired books. Often these call slips are dated and filed as the time record. A difficult problem is that of book cards. To provide these and the necessary book pockets for all books is expensive; not to do so makes a much slower system and results in possibilities of error in copying call numbers.

University of Illinois system.—This is a triple-entry system, which, by using the call slip handed in and by delaying the making of a complete record until the day after, saves a great deal of time. A 3×5 call slip is presented by the borrower, filled out with call number, author, title, borrower's name and address. The book is handed to the borrower and the call slip, the only record of the transaction, filed by call number under current date. If the book is returned on the same day, the call slip is taken from its tray and handed to the borrower as a receipt and the transaction is closed. Call slips remaining in the file are on the day following stamped with the date due and filed into the book record file. Before this is done a duplicate of the call slip is made to be filed under date due for a time record, and the call number and date due are copied on the reader's card, kept on file at the library to make the borrower's record.

This system is a simple and speedy one for the borrower, assuming that he will be required to write a call slip in any event. The borrower is not required to carry a card, and in the sending out of overdues the work is simplified by having at hand the name and address of the borrower. A great deal of clerical work is involved, however, in the complete process

of charging and discharging books. Also, unless the call slip agrees with the book issued, all subsequent records are bound to be wrong, nor does the borrower have a memorandum of the date when his book is due. The book could, of course, if desired, be provided with a dating slip and the date due stamped on its issue.

Registration records.—In order to have a record of those entitled to use the library and to secure a number as a convenient charging symbol, it is customary to keep two registers of borrowers, one alphabetical, on cards, the second numerical in the order of application, either on cards, or preferably in a book. As a basis for the former a blank is used on which the applicant asks for the privileges of the library and agrees to comply with its rules. In making application minors and those not property owners are usually required to have some property owner, or person of known responsibility, sign as guarantor for them. The better practice is to require a sponsor only when the applicant cannot be identified by city directory, telephone book, college catalog, lodge or society membership card, letterhead, business card, or whatever may serve for identification. Some libraries never require a guarantor. Instead a postal card is sent to the name and address as given, and if Uncle Sam succeeds in delivering the card its presentation by the applicant is regarded as sufficient identification. Where this plan is used the applicant must either wait a few days before he can borrow, or the library trusts him with but slight information available. In cities with a large foreign or floating population a second name on the card is often useful as a means of tracing the card holder. In such cases the name of a reference on the card and the applicant's business address are helpful. Practice will necessarily differ with the character of the community, and may vary also with the applicant. In the case of minors the signature of parents is desirable, and usually they should be held responsible. Exceptions may be made for foreign parents who from fear of

unknown responsibilities refuse to sign. When teachers sign, their signature should be used only for identification and should not hold them responsible for fines on pupils' cards. Application in person and signature at the library is desirable as far as practicable. A separate alphabetical list of guarantors, where guarantors are required, is scarcely necessary.

In registration usually a definite time, often three years, is set at which the card expires, necessitating a new application and re-registration at that time. Such re-registration of borrowers is needed to keep records from becoming too inaccurate. Cards no longer used, because of removal, death, or other cause, are weeded out, addresses are corrected, and a more accurate idea gained of the number of active borrowers. When cards are issued for a fixed number of years, re-registration is continuous, as cards expire daily. This is the better plan. If the period is indefinite, re-registration is accomplished usually by an entire new "deal," or by canceling a block of cards at a time. When re-registering, it is scarcely necessary to require guarantors or references for borrowers in good standing.

A street index, or record of all borrowers arranged according to place of residence, is kept in some libraries. The arrangement of cards is alphabetical or numerical by streets and numerical by house number with all the card holders at one address listed on the same card. Such an index makes it possible in the case of contagious diseases to determine the names of all card holders who reside at the same residence. It is convenient also in the case of common names and those of variant spellings, especially in work with a foreign population, or when because of misfiling or other reason the card holder's number cannot be found under his name. Such a directory can also be of use in the study of neighborhoods into which the library is planning to make extensions. It is a record that takes much time and is difficult to keep correct. Most librarians feel that it is not worth while.

Inter-branch records.—A system of branches results in a need for additional records. These are union records, kept at the central library, as an alphabetical list of borrowers for the entire system, in which is included a record of unpaid fines and similar information. Such a record prevents a borrower from holding cards at more than one branch, provided this restriction is considered desirable. Some libraries permit patrons to hold cards at as many branches as they wish, but this does not obviate the need for a union record of all borrowers and their delinquencies. A union record of guarantors and a union street directory are unnecessary.

Many borrowers find it convenient to be able to use different branches, or more often the central library, and the branch near their place of residence. This is easily accomplished in the Newark system, provided the reader carries his card. This permits also the return of books at the branch most convenient. The Browne and most other systems do not make this possible, except by the use of an additional universal or inter-branch card.

Another and most desirable way to make the entire library system available to each and every borrower is by inter-branch loans, whereby books are loaned from one place to another to meet the demands of borrowers. In this way special and technical books can be sent on loan to branches where demand is not sufficient for a branch copy, or one branch with a "run" on a special book or subject can meet its obligations through aid from the rest of the system.

Rules and regulations: Printed Rules.—The character and extent of privileges accorded the public and the regulations necessary to insure the prompt return of books and an equality of privileges to all are usually set down in the form of rules having the sanction of the governing board of the library.

These rules should be clear, definite, and concise, dignified in tone, and couched in good grammatical English, interesting

in appearance, and well printed. They should be free from irritating "don'ts" and from cumbersome legal phraseology. In making its rules the library should bear in mind the great fundamental fact that it exists to be of service to all people, at all times, in every possible way, and the no less important fact that, as guardian of a public trust, it must administer its affairs faithfully, efficiently, and economically. Although their primary purpose must be to state limitations to individual liberty, they should suggest constantly the privileges of the library rather than mere restrictions. The printed rules often serve as the reader's first and only formal introduction to the library. It is important, therefore, that their general attitude should make the proper impression concerning the spirit and usefulness of the library. The term "Rules" or "Regulations" in the title should be avoided, and instead there should be used "Information for readers," "Your library and how to use it," or some similar title having in it the note of welcome and of service.

Who may borrow books?—In a tax-supported library free borrowing privileges are usually confined to those resident, doing business, or owning property in the district* taxed. It is customary also to extend the privileges to those attending schools within these limits. Sometimes non-residents are given privileges free, more often only on payment of an annual fee, occasionally not at all. Transients may have privileges on payment of a deposit. This is usually returned when the borrower severs his connection, often not returned, or only in part.

Not many years ago children were not permitted the privileges of a library, but with the development of work with children the age of admission has been continuously reduced. In libraries generally it has now vanished and children old enough to enjoy Mother Goose picture books are permitted to borrow them for themselves.

How many books?—When libraries were in their beginnings, borrowers were usually allowed but one book. As collections became more adequate the number was increased to two, usually with the proviso that only one of the two might be fiction. This plan really represented a compromise between the conflicting claims of a stock of books insufficient for the demands upon it and the need for more than one book on the part of serious users of the library. It was also in part based on the theory held by many librarians that readers will draw non-fiction only provided they can indulge themselves with at least one novel. As far as the fiction reader is concerned two volumes, or even one at a time, are sufficient for his needs, if not for his desires. The numerous demands on the part of other readers for the same novel also justify a small number of books to one person. The serious student, however, is much hampered by the one- or two-book plan. He needs a number of books at one and the same time. Some libraries recognize this greater need by permitting to special classes of patrons, e.g., teachers and the clergy, more liberal privileges; others furnish on request a special privilege card. From these extra privileges fiction and recent books in very active demand are properly omitted. Many libraries now make practically no restriction upon the number of books permitted to one reader except in the case of recent books, and find this arrangement satisfactory.

In the two-book plan as usually provided one book may be fiction or non-fiction, the second must be non-fiction: this lest the statistics show an unduly great fiction percentage. Certain libraries, however, with no such limitation on a fiction circulation, have achieved most praiseworthy results. There seems to be no real reason for limiting fiction, provided it is properly selected and the non-fiction in the library is made easily and attractively available to the public.

Libraries frequently issue a larger number of books to their patrons during the summer vacation period and for a longer

period than usual, or until the close of the holiday season. A library can well afford this accommodation, as at that time decreasing demands make its resources greatest. In this case also books in active demand should be excepted. Provision should be made for the recall of books at an earlier date if unanticipated demands arise. A special card is not necessary. The vacation address should, however, be on file.

Length of loan period.—Most libraries issue for two weeks, permitting one renewal for a like period. For books in active demand the renewal privilege is often omitted, or even the period reduced to one week. For weekly magazines, if circulated, it is often three or four days. On the other hand, a few libraries make the usual period of loan four weeks, or a month, some with and some without a like renewal period. The saving in labor for the staff and the greater convenience to the borrower are urged in favor of the four-week period without renewal. The shorter period, however, insures a more active use of the books, as they cannot be kept as long from the library when no longer needed by the borrower, since they must be returned (if not renewed) and made available to the other readers at the end of two weeks. It is a debated question whether or not renewals should be counted as issues in circulation statistics. At present the practice recommended by the A.L.A. committee on library administration is to count renewals. Books automatically renewed and books issued for four weeks should not be counted as renewals. It is desirable to permit renewals by telephone. This is not easy in systems which, like the Browne and the Newark, have only a time record. This difficulty has in part caused the adoption of the four-week loan period. An indefinite number of renewals should not be permitted, nor the transfer of a book in much demand from one card to another. Both arrangements permit a favored few to monopolize a book, and to deprive others of an equal chance to obtain it.

Fines.—Why do libraries charge fines? As a moral discipline for their patrons? to punish them? to secure a bit of pin money? or as a fee for extra privileges? For none of these reasons. The purpose is to bring back the book within the time for which it is loaned. If other methods were equally effective they would be used in preference, but human nature is such that they are not. The amount to be paid for over-detention is usually fixed at two cents per day, though other amounts, less and larger, are not uncommon, especially a one-cent fine for children. For long over-detention the maximum fine usually does not exceed the value of the book or some set limit. There is no obligation upon the library to notify its patrons of overdue books, but this courtesy is usually observed and is necessary in the interests of getting the book back. A first notice is sent after a few days, usually on a postal card. This card should be carefully worded to avoid conflicting with the United States postal laws, which prohibit sending a dun on a postal card. (See American Library Association Bulletin 2:18-19.) A second and even third notice is sent if there is no response. Where these fail, a messenger may be sent. A charge for notice or messenger is frequently added to all accrued fines. With new borrowers a close follow-up is especially important. In the case of children occasion is often taken by the children's librarian to pay a home visit. A suspension of privileges in the case of children and perhaps also for adults may be a desirable alternative free from some of the objections and difficulties of a system of fines. In extreme cases recourse may be had to the police or the legal department of the city. It is proper and desirable to remit fines in certain cases where they are caused by illness or death, and of course always where the delay is due to contagious diseases. Fines in poor and foreign neighborhoods often work a hardship and stand in the way of the library's usefulness. Some sort of a statute of limitations on fines for over-detention should be adopted.

The printed notices and form letters sent by many libraries for overdue books and to delinquent borrowers leave much to be desired. They should be good in typography, designed for economical "fill ins" by typewriter, and courteously worded, even where unmistakable firmness is necessary. Notices to children should in particular be simple and clear in their wording.

In the case of lost or damaged books, payment for the same is a reimbursement for property lost or destroyed and differs in character from a fine for over-detention. The charge may be the cost of the book to the library. This may be modified with a deduction for wear and tear, or with an increase for the cost of adding the book to the collection. When the volume is one of a set, the charge may be for the entire set. Such a charge often works a serious hardship and should be made only in cases with aggravating circumstances. Where the damage does not result in a total loss, an equitable charge must be made. Wanton destruction of library property is of course another matter, and is punishable by law, and should be so punished when possible.

Frequently a charge is made for replacing a reader's lost card. This is in part to insure proper care of the cards and in part to recompense the library for the trouble caused. This practice seems now a little mediaeval. If some sort of "fine" is necessary in the case of children, a withdrawal of privileges for a short period is often more effective.

Reserves.—That a reader may be certain of getting a desired book without the necessity of making repeated visits to discover whether a copy is on the shelves, a system of reserve postal cards is frequently instituted. A self-addressed postal card requesting the book is left by the borrower. This is mailed to the borrower as soon as the book becomes available, the book being held for him for a few days. The charge for this card may be one or two cents, or nothing at all. Some libraries do not

reserve fiction, or only that in their pay duplicate collection, but reserve non-fiction without charge. Some objection has been made against reserve postals as not in accord with the true spirit of the public library. Another objection is that a popular book is often held inactive for some days until called for. A telephone notification supplementing the postal card will lessen this delay. However, the undoubted convenience and benefit of the reserve postal card to the serious user of the library have caused its widespread adoption. The small charge for the card is by no means an equivalent to the library for the work entailed by the privilege, but serves merely to keep the number of requests within manageable limits. This it accomplishes, thanks to the thrifty habits of Americans in their expenditure for books.

Restricted books.—Few problems in a library are more delicate than those involved in a properly restricted circulation of books with a questionable moral tone or those treating of sex questions. The small library solves the problems easily by not having such books on its shelves. The large library, however, must have many of these, as they are literary classics or important contributions to subjects which are and must be a subject of study, and yet are most unfit for the immature or perverted mind. To make these books known and available to the few who have need for them, and at the same time to keep them from going into the hands of those for whom they are unsuited, is the difficulty. In the case of fiction, it is comparatively easy to omit buying novels of questionable tone and poor literary quality. All fiction should be read and passed upon for addition to the library from personal knowledge and with an attempt to keep the happy mean between prudery and no standard whatever. In the case of classics, most inquirers can be served by giving them a modernized and expurgated edition if one exists. Authoritative books on sex questions should be available to the mature student or social worker without

annoying red tape or a censorious manner. Authority to loan books of this character should be vested in only a few people, and these of judgment and maturity. For convenience it is well to mark the books themselves with a distinguishing sign to indicate their restricted character and to keep the books on shelves more closely guarded than the rest. These marks should, however, be omitted from public catalogs, as young people have been known to examine the catalog in a hunt for starred books.

Access to shelves.—Open shelves affect vitally the work of the loan department. Some degree of free access to the shelves is almost universal in public libraries today. There is a great difference, however, in its extent, due in part to the plan of the building, in part to the size and character of the book collections, and in part to varying conceptions of the public library on the part of the governing authorities. Complete access is common and feasible in the smaller public libraries and in the branches of a library system, if these are planned to permit easy supervision. Such collections do not contain rare or expensive books and books of a questionable moral tone. In libraries, however, with considerable collections various considerations make partly restricted access necessary. These are: insufficient space for the proper display of all the books, a considerable proportion of out-of-date and extremely technical books, rarities, and books not suitable for general reading. To meet this difficulty, two plans are in use. In the one, the cream of the collection, the most desirable and most generally useful books only are made freely available, and the remainder are housed in a stack. The second plan reverses the selection. In this all books are left for free access, except those out of date, rare, of questionable moral tone, or in other ways not suitable. These are relegated to the stack. The plan adopted depends a great deal upon the space arrangement of the building. The second is to be preferred as less paternalistic where the conditions do not make the

other imperative. Where space for open shelves is small and the collection large, it is possible in time to present all the books to the public by making available, successively, different portions of the collection.

Arguments pro and con have been numerous. It has never been satisfactorily determined whether or no open-access libraries require more or fewer attendants. The gain in saving attendants to get the books is fully matched, however, by the greater need for help in keeping the shelves in order. But as there is more opportunity to help the public in their selection, when public, staff, and books are brought into immediate contact, it is desirable to meet this increased opportunity with an increased staff.

Open access should, however, depend for its adoption, not primarily on cost of service, but on its merits of serving well the public. This it certainly does. There is first the pleasure which every book lover derives in the browsing among books and the tasting thereof. Librarians should be the last to deny the public this pleasure. Free access to the books on the shelves is in accord with and creates that hospitality and welcome so desirable in a public library. Direct contact with books and the resulting broader horizon from a perusal, even if only of their backs, is by no means to be neglected as an educational influence. Personal examination and comparison are much more likely to provide the borrower with a serviceable book than the best of catalogs and other indirect methods. These would seem to be unanswerable arguments for the affirmative.

The strongest argument against is based on moral grounds, namely, that free access to the books leads people into a temptation to which they are all too prone to yield. It is true that open-access libraries often lose many books presumably by theft. In some cities the problem, especially as it relates to the adolescent, is a difficult and as yet unsolved one. With adequate supervision, however, theft will decrease much, and

that remaining will be deliberate in character and not a weak yielding to temptation. Deliberate theft we find to occur in all libraries, but especially in those with books which are of considerable value or which are convenient for their compendious information and handy format. Most book or department stores offer greater and more varied opportunities for moral degeneration by making theft easy than does a public library with its books full of ownership marks and more or less soiled and worn from use. Other disadvantages urged against open shelves are the greater wear and tear on books because of constant handling by the public, and the larger amount of floor space needed to insure easy access, together with proper supervision.

Pay duplicate collection.—No library is rich enough to buy sufficient copies of current best sellers to meet the first demand, and, granted that a library can meet this demand, it is a question whether the expenditure of such an amount for books used only for a few weeks or months, thereafter to stand idle on the shelves, can be justified in the case of funds appropriated for an institution whose primary purpose is educational and cultural.

This enormous demand for the current ephemeral fiction is more or less adequately met in many cities by commercial circulating libraries in book and department stores which serve to relieve the pressure on public libraries. Where this is not the case, many libraries feel justified in adding this somewhat commercial feature to the library because of the satisfaction it gives to their patrons. The stock of such a pay duplicate collection is largely fiction, though other popular books may be added as well as the current magazines. The rental charged is usually five cents per week or one cent per day. A borrower may usually take pay duplicate books in addition to the free books to which he is entitled. Fundamental principles to be observed are that copies of all titles be represented also in the

free collection presumably in as many copies as if there were no pay duplicate collection, and that the literary and moral standards governing the selection of library books should obtain also in selecting titles for the pay duplicate collection.

The usual practice is to make these collections self-sustaining but without thought of profit. A book is expected to pay for its initial cost and one rebinding. When a book has paid for itself or when the demand has abated, it may be added to the library collection proper, sold, or disposed of in any way that seems proper. Its advocates claim for a pay duplicate collection that it meets a real and insistent public demand, that it relieves the library book fund from a pressure to which it otherwise must yield to some extent, no matter how ill it can afford to do so, that those who are unable or do not care to use this collection are not discriminated against but have an even better opportunity to get the free copies, while the later addition of pay copies to the free collection again results in an increase of facilities. The main objection is that it is not in keeping with the true spirit of a public library, and introduces a commercial tone particularly to be deplored. In some cities there is a question as to the library's legal right to establish such a collection.

Health precautions.—In safeguarding the public health the library has another serious duty. To be most effective there should be full co-operation with the local health authorities, in part for the real help that they can render and in part for the moral effect on the community. The library may expect the city health department to send immediate word of new cases of contagious diseases. The library from its records can then determine whether any inmates of the household attacked have library cards and possibly books in their possession. When the health department will assume it, it should be charged with the responsibility for destroying books or disinfecting them before they reach the library. In addition, the library should be

watchful to catch books that may be suspected, even remotely, of having been exposed. The most common disinfectant used is formaldehyde in the form of vapor, though it is a question as to whether it is thoroughly effective. Disinfecting is advisable only in the case of milder diseases. In smallpox and scarlet-fever cases books should be burned. Diphtheria and measles germs are short-lived, and fumigation, with a four months' temporary withdrawal of the book, would seem to be adequate precaution. Rather than be destroyed, books can often be sent to the contagious wards of hospitals.

An unsolved problem is the treatment of books exposed to tuberculosis. Communities are not yet prepared to support a library in a withdrawal of privileges. Few health departments will even register and report such cases. The public library can therefore do but little in the way of preventive measures. Some libraries disinfect at intervals the entire book collection. This seems of little efficacy, as it is not possible to disinfect the insides of books as they stand on the shelves.

The danger to public health from the use of books may easily be much exaggerated. Medical authorities state that the possibility of transmission of disease through library books is practically nil. Almost without exception public libraries report no cases of contagious diseases contracted by members of the staff, which could be attributed to handling exposed books, nor have medical authorities been able to trace an epidemic to the use of public library books. Indeed, precautionary measures, though in part to meet real danger, are valuable largely in that they reassure a public always rather nervous on this subject.

Statistics.—The statistics that need be kept in a loan department are few. Essential are a record of the total number of registered borrowers with addition of new cards and withdrawal of canceled and expired cards noted monthly; an exact record of fines and other money collected at the desk; a record

of the number of books circulated daily, monthly, and yearly, together with a record by classes for both adult and juvenile. Less important are statistics of borrowers by occupation, by age, or by sex; quantitative records of work done, such as number of fine notices mailed, postal reserves left, or number of renewals.

Special problems and special needs can often be studied to advantage by keeping for a time statistics specially devised for the purpose. Most of the statistics kept by libraries are mere measures of the amount of work done. Such statistics are to an extent desirable and are often required by the body to which the library reports. Much more useful, however, are statistics which enable the librarian to study his library after the scientific method, which help him to solve his problems, or which reveal opportunities for a correction of faults or for increased service. Such statistics are of course primarily for the librarian's use and are seldom printed.

Supplies.—Standard technical supplies, such as book pockets and readers' cards, are usually best purchased from the library supply houses, such as the Library Bureau, Gaylord Brothers, and Democrat Printing Company. These firms, by the use of special machinery for cutting and by printing in large quantities, can undersell the local printer. Large libraries which can buy large quantities at better rates at home are exceptions. Supplies which are special to each library, however, or which are not peculiarly library supplies, can usually be bought to advantage locally. The wording of printed forms should be concise, direct, and simple, the type plain and the printing good.

Publicity.—Methods of advertising the library and of bringing people to its doors are many and outside of the scope of this chapter. There is much, however, that can be done in the loan department itself to call attention directly to the books. Picture bulletins and exhibits have been extensively used and still are found effective. They should be planned so

as to direct attention to the books. The jackets in which books are often received from the dealer are very effective on a bulletin board. Short lists of books either in the books themselves or distributed from the desk are helpful. A bulletin issued periodically serves to advertise additions. The open-shelf system is in itself a splendid advertisement of the books. Display racks are a most effective means to direct attention to special groups of books or to influence reading in desirable directions, as nine people out of ten will stop to scan the books thus set forth. For the time and expense involved no other method is so effective in introducing to the reader books that are new to him. These racks can be made useful also in diverting the public unconsciously in the direction that they should go, and can, by their location, ease problems of administration and discipline. None of these means, however, can equal in effectiveness a staff with a ready and intimate knowledge of the book collection and an eagerness to place this knowledge at the disposal of the public.

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XXIII

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS

(STATE AND CITY)

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OUTLINE

Definition

Government documents and libraries

Issue and distribution (points common to all documents)

Determined by organization of city, state, and national government

Table comparing governmental machinery of state, city, and nation

Form of issue

Department edition

Collected edition

Manner of distribution

By states

By cities

City documents

Local

Those of other cities

Check-lists and indexes

State documents

Printing and distribution

Collected edition

Department edition

Check-lists and indexes

What kinds of state documents are valuable to libraries

Illustrative list

United States documents

Treatment by libraries

Receipt and recording

Arrangement

Bibliography

DEFINITION

A "government document" (and this term is better than the too commonly used "public document") is any paper, map, pamphlet, or book, manuscript or printed, originating in,

MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY

or printed with the imprint of, or at the expense and by the authority of any office of legally organized government.

Manuscript government documents, commonly called archives, were the original current records of government business and are the unique source materials of history. Letter-files, pay-rolls, city tax lists, office records, minutes of boards and committees are examples of archive material. In some European countries, American states, and a few cities, these manuscript archives are highly organized and administered with a liberality and an intelligence commensurate with their importance. Archives or manuscript government documents are continually being transformed into printed government documents as when the Library of Congress printed the Journals of the Continental Congress and the New York State Library printed the Minutes of the Colonial Council of that state.

This chapter is concerned solely with American printed government documents, for it is only printed documents that are generally available for library use.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS AND LIBRARIES

In this country, libraries are the chief public depositories of the printed documents of the *national* government. In nearly every commonwealth, law or usage provides that libraries shall receive some or all *state* documents. *Cities*, too, are frequently publishers and, because it is seldom effectively done elsewhere, it becomes the duty of every library to preserve the printed documents of its own local government.

There are some large libraries that collect and organize for reference use all the documents of each of these three kinds. There are more libraries that do this for a selection from them. There is no library so special in aim nor so small that it is not interested in some of them. It is thus only in the libraries of the land that government documents are collected and cared for in any systematic, comprehensive, and intelligent way,

looking toward their fullest present and future availability for consultation. The casual or the serious student who wishes to consult more than one or two current documents turns from habit and indeed of necessity to the nearest library. Nowhere but in libraries is any serious thought given to the acquisition, arrangement, cataloging, and research use of government documents, and that this treatment of them may be facilitated both national and state governments offer special privileges to libraries. As government documents constitute a very special kind of printed matter, a kind, too, which is constantly growing in volume and importance, so they present peculiar problems to every library in the technical and bibliographical operations which are necessary to make them most useful. These problems will vary with the different types and sizes of libraries, such as the college library, the large and small public library, the special library (law, medicine, insurance, etc.), the high-school library; they will vary with the different kinds of documents, as national, state, and local, and their varying appropriateness to the different kinds of libraries; to some extent they will vary in different parts of the country because of local industries, natural resources, geography, or geology.

ISSUE AND DISTRIBUTION

To know government documents it is necessary to know something about government, the more the better; and the official and necessary background for an intelligent understanding of the nature, content, and significance of these three classes of documents and the ways in which libraries organize them for use is best to be had from a knowledge of the organization and conduct of the government of the village, city, state, or nation whose documents are in hand.

There is a type of book which gives this information. For the city it is the Manual of the Common Council, for the state

it is the Legislative Manual, commonly called the Blue or Red Book, for the nation it is the Congressional Directory.

These are neither formal treaties on the theory of the government of state, city, or nation, nor discussions of the limits of its powers, but merely bare statements of its administrative activities with a list of the different offices and departments of the government, their duties and personnel. They are books prepared for the information and reference use of the members of city councils, state legislatures, and the national Congress.

In working with government documents, the knowledge of the machinery of organized government is important from every aspect.

In cataloging, it frequently supplies the official name of the issuing office with information as to changes in the names and affiliations of government bureaus, the perplexing genealogy of government offices.

In classification, it describes the work of each issuing department, commission, or office, hence giving a clue to the contents of the book in hand.

In reference work, it tells which government departments or offices do work on specific subjects, for example, which state has a department regulating railroads, telephones, or life insurance, and, if no special department exists, which state office performs comparable duties. Table I presents in comparative, tabular form the usual government activities of nation, state, and city in this country.

Before considering separately, and in some detail, city, state, and national documents, it is well to note peculiarities which are common to all three in (a) the form of their issue and (b) the manner of their distribution.

a) **Form.**—Copying the long-standing practice of the national government (from which it is now breaking away), many city and nearly all state documents of the sort known as congressional or legislative documents—the reports of officials

or departments made to the chief legislative body—are issued in two forms, a first or “department” edition and a later or “collected” edition. The “department” edition is the most numerous and is used for general distribution and when it is printed a smaller number of additional copies are laid aside for binding in the “collected” edition which is issued annually by cities and, oftenest, biennially by states to correspond with their legislative sessions.

This “collected” or definitive edition is distributed more formally to libraries, other cities and states, public officers, schools, etc., and this distribution is usually provided for by law. This edition is usually uniformly bound in leather, often the documents in it are numbered serially, and the set provided with a common title-page, table of contents, and index.

These “collected” editions are seldom bibliographically satisfactory, being made up usually by a lowest-bidder printer, a temporary political official who is careless or indifferent or an ex-officio board chiefly interested in letting a printing contract. To be satisfactory for library use such a “collected” edition should be

1. Complete; omitting none of the regular annual documents.
2. Arranged in a single series, each document numbered (preferably with the same number each year for the perennial reports, as in Massachusetts), and the documents grouped, roughly at least, by subjects, as Educational, Financial, Charitable, Public Works, etc.
3. Furnished with a series title-page and table of contents in each volume, showing on title-page the title of series, the period covered, number of volumes, compiler, place and date of publication, printer's name, and on the table of contents a numerical list of all documents forming the set with the number of volume in which each appears.
4. Each separate document of over thirty or fifty pages should have its own detailed index.

5. Each volume should have at the end a thoroughly good index to the entire set or series.
6. Bound in stout leather or better in buckram or canvas and each volume lettered on the back with the name of the city or state, date, contents of volume, and title of series with number of volume or documents.

b) Manner of Distribution.—The distribution of all government documents, national, state, and city, is illogical, unsystematic, and wasteful. Too many people have a hand in it—congressmen, legislators, issuing offices, state and city libraries, various city officers, etc., all send out documents with no checks on each other. It lacks centralization. It is worst in our cities and best in the distribution of our national documents. There is little well-considered legislation governing it in either cities or states, and such scattered provisions of law or ordinance as affect the distribution of documents are fortuitous and unimportant. In cities the city clerk is usually charged by law with the custody and distribution of official documents, but the work is done perfunctorily and documents desired can usually be had more surely from the issuing office. In states the law usually lays it upon the secretary of state, and because it has usually been indifferently performed in that office, the state library has latterly and often informally come to be the chief agent for the state in such matters.

This tendency to lodge official distribution of state documents with the state library seems to be a proper and commendable one. It is better acquainted with the bibliography of such documents than any other state agency. The continuity of administration insuring necessary care in compiling, continuing, and revising mailing lists is greater than in any other state department. It would be well if in all states laws could be enacted which would definitely fix the distribution of state documents as a function of the state library.

In a few states the library commission has been designated by law or has assumed without objection the business of distributing state documents to libraries.

CITY DOCUMENTS

Local documents.—By this term is meant the official publications, the administrative and business records, of the village, city, town, or county (whatever the primary political district may be) in which the library is situated and which it serves as its chief and immediate constituency. At least one library in each such political district should make the completest possible collection of its public documents. They will usually be in printed form, yet the local library should welcome manuscript records which are not as well cared for or are not more appropriate in the city hall or courthouse. In very small places public documents will often appear in fugitive and informal shape. The village treasurer's report may be printed only in one local paper, the report of the library in another. Some or even all of the city departments may issue separate pamphlet reports which are never collected into one volume. It is likely that no officer or institution will take as much interest in preserving these reports as the local library, for the frequently changing officers of a local government pay slight heed to keeping a full set of such documents. They may be preserved either by a public library or perhaps with even greater propriety by a historical society library. Such material should be kept in a separate room or alcove and may well form part of the local history collection which should be a feature of every library and which easily may be made a matter of considerable pride and interest. Besides the local government documents, this collection will contain scrapbooks, the files of the town papers, portraits or photographs of local people and places, books by local writers, and books and pamphlets printed in the town. Its scope may even be extended to include relics which

are genuine and not too unwieldy. Much, even of the document material, which will go to form such a collection appears in frail and ephemeral form, and constant vigilance alone can get worthy results.

Such a collection should be arranged for easy and effective exhibit as a museum and for use with schools. It will often interest local people of means in gifts and bequests of money or material.

Documents of other cities.—Few public libraries, and those the largest, will collect many documents of other cities. The larger college and reference libraries will try to get sets of reports of such cities and city officers as deal with current questions of municipal government or control, especially on social and political topics. A very few of the largest libraries will try to collect all city documents. There are no general indexes or check-lists of city documents, and the only essays toward such bibliographic records which are known to the writer are:

List of works relating to city charters, ordinances, and collected documents. 383 pp. New York Public Library, 1913,

the title of which would more accurately describe this laborious and useful compilation if it omitted the words "works relating to," and

Official documents of the city of Pittsburgh: tentative list, February, 1913. 16 pp. Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.

There is no regular list of current issues of city documents, and their distribution is not so well organized as that of state and national documents. It is therefore very difficult, not only to learn of their issue, but to secure copies regularly or even to know what pieces are required to form complete sets. Unlike the general government and some states, few cities designate a special officer or department to supervise the

TABLE I
COMPARATIVE POLITICAL ORGANIZATION OF NATION, STATE, AND CITY WITH PARTICULAR RELATION TO DOCUMENT-ISSUING OFFICES

	Nation	State	City
1. Organic law	Constitution never revised and seldom amended	Constitution often revised in conventions which publish their Debates and Proceedings	Charter often revised and amended by state legislature
2. Executive	President Messages Proclamations Orders	Governor Messages Proclamations	Mayor Messages Commissioners
3. Legislative	Congress Directory Debates (Congressional Record) Journals Committee reports Hearings Bills Statutes Federal courts Reports	Legislature General Court (Mass.) Manual or "Blue Book" Journals Laws (Session laws)	Common council Aldermen Selectmen Manual Journals—Minutes—"City Record" Ordinances
4. Judicial	Statutes Federal courts Reports	Supreme Court Court of Appeals (N.Y.) Reports	Municipal courts Decisions rarely reported in print
5. Administrative offices. All of which issue reports	<i>Executive departments—</i> State Treasury War Navy Justice Interior Post-Office Commerce Agriculture Labor <i>Other typical agencies—</i> Library of Congress Government Printing Office Civil Service Commission	Secretary of State Treasurer Adjutant-General National Guard Attorney-General Superintendent of Public Instruction or Commissioner of Education Commissioner of Agriculture Commissioner of Labor State Library Library Commission State Printing Commissioner or Board Civil Service Commission	City clerk Treasurer Police department Attorney Superintendent of schools Parl. department Public Library Civil Service Commission

Many other permanent and temporary commissions, boards, etc., issue reports.

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printing and distribution of their documents. Each document usually is to be had only by direct application to the issuing office and often not even then.

Check-lists and indexes.—While city documents, more than those of either state or nation, are business records, not research publications, yet an increasing volume of expert and significant matter is being issued in city documents, and it will not be long before bibliographers in municipal reference libraries or in libraries having great document collections, must prepare the check-lists and indexes needed to facilitate their collection and use as reference material. At present such data exist only in the card or printed catalogs of great libraries and to a very slight extent in our current trade bibliography.

In form of issue and unsystematic arrangements for distribution, city documents present a situation even more discouraging than state or national documents. There has been within the past twenty years a remarkable civic awakening in this country. This has produced a considerable and important body of valuable literature published by city governments. The arrangements for printing and distributing, however, are not characterized by that efficiency which has been sought in civic life in the past generation. A somewhat more detailed statement of the chaos and varying practices in the publication of city documents is found in Kaiser, J. B., "American municipal documents," *Special Libraries*, June 1913 (also printed in *Library Journal*, 38:453-56), while more exact information as to the printing, sale, and distribution of municipal documents in American cities of more than 25,000 population is presented in tabular form by Frank G. Bates in *Special Libraries* for January 1914, 5:12-21.

The same specifications for a satisfactory "collected" edition that are set down in a previous paragraph apply with as much force to city as to state documents, although outside of New England, and particularly Massachusetts, few cities,

save the very largest, regularly prepare a collected edition of their documents.

STATE DOCUMENTS

Printing and distribution.—The printing and, with lesser detail, distribution of state documents are prescribed by statute in all states. These four dozen laws, though much alike in the main, yet embody a great number of diverse minor provisions. There is no state printing law which can be pointed to as a model, although Massachusetts and Pennsylvania have statutes representing much study which secure pretty satisfactory results. Few of the states have codified the printing law which is thus a group of laws passed at different times, which lack unity and which in many cases do not apply most effectively to present administrative conditions. The three principal common features are: (1) printing let under contract to the lowest bidder; (2) provision for an official or "collected" edition of the principal documents; (3) principal distribution reserved by members of the legislature as an official perquisite. Any change in, or reform of, document printing and distribution in any state must be grounded upon a careful study of its present laws regulating these matters and an intimate acquaintance with the practice, often extra-legal, which now obtains.

Collected edition.—Practically all states issue their documents in two editions, the "department" edition and the "collected" edition. The former, comprising nearly all of the total edition, is distributed by legislators and through the different issuing departments. The latter is in most states only large enough to supply a few state officials and institutions and the state libraries of all the other states in exchange. This edition is in many cases prepared by or under direction of the state library and the exchanges with other states are almost always conducted by it. The binders' title is variously Executive Documents, Legislative Documents, Public Documents.

Department edition.—While in a few states there is a noticeable and increasing tendency to enlarge the functions of the state library, or the state library commission in document distribution, yet in no state is it as completely and effectively centralized, there or in any office, as it should be. The reasons, not far to seek, are the reluctance of members of the legislature to part with this attractive perquisite, and the natural feeling of issuing departments that they can distribute their own publications better than anyone else can do it for them.

In view of this lack of any definite or uniform distributing agency in the various states, libraries desiring copies of the "department" edition can do no better than to apply to the state department or office which issues the document. If this brings neither reply nor document a letter to the state library will usually bring one or the other.

Check-lists and indexes.—The principal bibliographic helps to a knowledge and reference use of state documents are the following:

Bowker, R. R. State publications; a provisional list of the official publications of the several states of the United States from their organization. 1031 pp. New York, 1908.

Reviewed in *Library journal*, 34:459. An account of some difficulties encountered in its compilation is in *Library journal* 30:233-38.

Hasse, A. R. Index of economic material in documents of the states of the United States to 1904. Carnegie Institution 1907+.

Reviewed in *Library journal*, 32:377 and 33:466. There is to be a separate volume for each state, of which 11 have appeared for Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, Delaware, Ohio, Kentucky, California, and Illinois.

Library of Congress. Monthly list of state publications. January 1910+.

A full index is issued at the end of each year.

A few states, usually through the state library, library commission, or state historical society, have issued tentative check-lists of official publications but they are seldom full or accurate enough to be of much use.

VALUE TO LIBRARIES

While *every* library will pay special heed to collecting all the documents of its own *city*, the documents of its own *state* will not be collected with the same zeal or completeness by any but the larger libraries. Beyond the borders of the state, however, and as a class, state documents are of far more importance than city documents and to a far greater number of libraries. Few except state libraries and the largest reference libraries collect the documents of all states, although every library, even the smallest, will find use for some of the documents of its own state and occasionally for one from another state, and many medium-sized and larger libraries will wish to get regularly reports from certain departments in other states or (still oftener) occasional publications of a social or scientific sort. Speaking generally, but perhaps with as much definiteness as the matter will allow, the kind of state documents that small libraries will find useful are statistical publications like the Legislative Manual or Blue Book and the report of the treasurer or auditor presenting the annual budget with statement of sources of revenue, receipts, and disbursements; popular but authoritative science such as is found in the bulletins of agricultural colleges and experiment stations, in the reports of forest, fish, and game commissions and geological surveys; historical matter such as the accounts of memorial expositions, celebrations, and dedications and publications of a political, social, or economic nature. The following titles of a few documents issued by New York state during the past few years will illustrate better than any statement the type

of occasional state publication issued by all states, which is of interest to all libraries in the state and often to those outside:

Beach. Apples of New York. 2v. Geneva experiment station.

Horner. The American flag. Education department.

Lincoln. Messages of the governors of New York. 11v. State library.

Felt. Control of flies and other household insects. State museum.

Manual for the use of the legislature of the state of New York (annual)
Secretary of state.

New York arbor day annual. Education department.

Whitford. History of New York canals. 2v. State engineer.

Eaton. Birds of New York. 2v. State museum.

Session laws; issued annually in New York, biennially in most other states, and usually distributed by the secretary of state.

Maps of roads, forests, quarries, notable scenic regions, rivers, harbors, etc., are issued from time to time by all states and are of interest to all libraries.

Even though it does not try to get all of them, every library should have as complete a list as possible of the documents of its own state and should follow, whenever there is any way to do so, the current state publications. In some states, a list of current state documents likely to be of interest to libraries is regularly printed in the bulletin of the state library commission. Every library, too, should be accurately acquainted with the lending and distributing facilities offered by the state library or by the nearest large library which keeps a complete set.

UNITED STATES DOCUMENTS

This chapter logically should cover United States government documents as fully as state and city documents are discussed above. That it does not do so is due to the fact that the American Library Association Publishing Board has issued and keeps in stock as Handbook 7 the present author's little pamphlet on "United States government documents in small

libraries." The fourth edition of this, revised to March 1914, has recently been printed and it seems needless to reprint it in this chapter.

TREATMENT BY LIBRARIES

Records.—An accurate record of the library's document holdings is desirable. This record may be its shelf-list, its author catalog, or a check-list, preferably on cards. In only the very largest, most highly specialized libraries should all three be required. The most useful of these three records for the small library is the shelf-list (which, for government documents, may be made on a standard-sized card specially printed like the samples shown below), which should suffice in all libraries up to twelve or fifteen thousand volumes. Libraries larger than this will begin to feel the need of an alphabetical list of serials to supplement the classed order of the shelf-list and this will probably take the form of author cards in the public catalog. Here again the form of the card may best resemble a check-list card or the card used to catalog or note the receipt of periodicals and other serials; a card which emphasizes the record of the single volume rather than the library's total holding.

As both the shelf-list and the catalog are standard records, only the check-list will be described here. Of course the easiest and a wholly satisfactory way is to check all the library's holdings against some reasonably accurate printed list, noting the variations on the margin or on interleaves. The third edition of the Check-List of United States Government Documents, the detailed lists of collected state documents in the prefaces to the different volumes of Miss Hasse's Index, the list of Wisconsin documents issued a few years ago by the state library commission are examples of check-lists which easily may be used thus. There are few such, however, and the large library maintaining a separate and extensive documents

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NORTH CAROLINA. AUDITOR

BIENNIAL REPORT

1871	1881	1891	1901	1911
1872	1882	1892	1902	1912
1873	1883	1893	1903	1913
1874	1884	1894	1904	1914
1875	1885	1895	1905	1915
1876	1886	1896	1906	1916
1877	1887	1897	1907	1917
1878	1888	1898	1908	1918
1879	1889	1899	1909	1919
1880	1890	1900	1910	1920

NEW YORK (STATE). MUSEUM

BULLETIN

51	61	71	81	91
52	62	72	82	92
53	63	73	83	93
54	64	74	84	94
55	65	75	85	95
56	66	76	86	96
57	67	77	87	97
58	68	78	88	98
59	69	79	89	99
60	70	80	90	100

The above card may also be single-spaced so as to hold 100 numbers.

KANSAS. INSURANCE SUPERINTENDENT

ANNUAL REPORT

1871	1881	1891	1901	1911
1872	1882	1892	1902	1912
1873	1883	1893	1903	1913
1874	1884	1894	1904	1914
1875	1885	1895	1905	1915
1876	1886	1896	1906	1916
1877	1887	1897	1907	1917
1878	1888	1898	1908	1918
1879	1889	1899	1909	1919
1880	1890	1900	1910	1920

department will prefer the specially printed cards shown above, the peculiar uses of which are quickly apparent. Such a check-list, which is fully described in *Public Libraries*, 15:181-84, exclusively for the library staff, will be freely annotated with the bibliographic eccentricities which abound in government documents.

Arrangement.—In any but the very largest libraries, that not only preserve collected editions but duplicate these with separate departmental editions, government documents will be shelved like any other books. A separate room, alcove, or shelf for such books is not necessary. Whether single volumes or continuing sets, they will be classified with other books on the same subjects on the safe principle that all the material in a library on the same subject should be in the fewest possible different places.

In the largest libraries, which keep practically all government documents, the matter of arrangement presents too many different aspects for consideration in a pamphlet of this size.

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GENERAL

Fuller, E. D. United States, state and town documents in small libraries. *Library journal*, 23:564-66, 1898.

Tilton, A. C. Printed series cards for public documents. *Public libraries*, 15:181-84, 1910.

Describes a method of recording public documents on specially ruled cards. Applicable to city, state, or federal documents.

STATE DOCUMENTS

For fuller list on state documents, see "Library work; cumulated 1905-1911," pp. 373-74. H. G. T. Cannons' list on government documents in his "Bibliography of library economy," 1910, pp. 306-9, includes material on state documents. For bibliographies of state documents, see A. B. Kroeger's "Guide to the study and use of reference books," 1908, pp. 97-98.

Hasse, A. R. How may government documents be made more useful to the public? *Library journal*, 26:8-13, 1901; *State documents*, pp. 11-13.

———. Subject headings for state documents. *Library journal*, 31:C123-26, 1906.

National association of state libraries. *Proceedings*, 1899-date.

This association has always had committees on exchange and distribution of state documents and on systematic bibliography of state official literature. The reports of these committees, the ensuing discussion, and other papers read before this body, all relate to state documents as they are considered by state libraries.

Check-Lists and Indexes

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Kaiser, J. B. American municipal documents. *Special libraries*, June 1913, and *Library journal*, 38:453-56.

Check-Lists

Carnegie library of Pittsburgh. Official documents of the city of Pittsburgh; tentative list, February 1902. 15 pp. O.

New York public library. List of works relating to city charters, ordinances and collected documents. 383 pp. Q. New York. 1913.

Reprinted from the Bulletin of the New York Public Library.

XXIV
BIBLIOGRAPHY
ISADORE GILBERT MUDGE
Columbia University Library

OUTLINE

- Derivation
- Present meaning
- Kinds of bibliography
 - General
 - National
 - Trade
 - Author
 - Subject
 - Bio-bibliography
- Standards of bibliographic work
 - Compiler
 - Arrangement
 - Definition of scope
 - Fulness of information
 - Annotation
 - Location of copies
- Use of bibliography in library work
 - Administrative offices
 - Order, gift, and exchange departments
 - Catalog department
 - Loan department
 - Binding department
 - Reference department
- Bibliographical work done by libraries
 - The card catalog
 - Printed catalogs
 - Catalogs and special collections
 - Subject bibliographies
 - Reading lists
- Bibliographical societies
- Learned societies and government bureaus
- Co-operative bibliography
- Bibliography

The object of this chapter is to show the meaning of the words bibliography and bibliographer in their original, derived, and present use, to define in detail the forms and scope of modern practical bibliography, to show the value of a knowledge of such bibliography in all branches of library service, and to survey briefly the work in bibliography done by libraries, bibliographical societies, learned institutions, government departments, and by organized co-operative effort.

DERIVATION

The word bibliography comes from two Greek words meaning "book" and "to write." In its original meaning, bibliography meant the writing, transcribing, or copying of books, and a bibliographer was a scribe or copyist. This original meaning, the first recorded use of which in English is found in Blount's *Dictionary* (1656), persisted until after the middle of the eighteenth century, but is now entirely obsolete. From the first meaning, "the writing of books," came the second meaning, writing about books, especially about rare or interesting books, and from this second use was derived the present meaning of systematic description of books with special reference to their authorship, titles, publishers, dates, history, editions, subject-matter, and value, either material or intellectual.

PRESENT MEANING

In present usage the word bibliography has three recognized differences in meaning, and practically the same differences occur in the use of the word bibliographer. The most comprehensive use defines bibliography as the science which treats of books, their materials, authors, typography, editions, subjects, history, etc., and a bibliographer as one who has a knowledge of that science. This most comprehensive meaning of bibliography is in very general use abroad, but in America it represents the popular and literary use of the term, which is

seldom used in this sense by American librarians and practical bibliographers.

A second and more specific use defines bibliography as "the art of the examination, collation, and description of books," and a bibliographer as a person skilled in making such examination and description. In this sense bibliography is an extension of cataloging, involving more careful and detailed examination of the book, more expert knowledge on the part of the worker, more research work on questions connected with the authorship and history of the book, more detail in the description, and much greater fulness in the historical or critical notes appended to the description.

The third use of the term defines bibliography as the science of the systematic description or recording of groups of books which have either a period, regional, subject, author, or other recognized relation to each other. Concretely, the list of books resulting from such systematic description is termed a bibliography. Thus, there are bibliographies of fifteenth-century books, of books published in France, of books on sociology, of Shakspeare, etc., and various combinations of such groups, as, for example, a bibliography of sixteenth-century English translations of the Latin and Greek classics. This third meaning is the one most common now both in America and abroad and is the sense in which the word is used in the following sections of this chapter. In this connection the word bibliographer may mean either a person who makes bibliographies or one who has a knowledge of existing bibliographies and is skilled in their use.

KINDS OF BIBLIOGRAPHY

The great body of printed bibliographies falls naturally into the six recognized classes which are defined below.

1. A general bibliography is a list of books not limited to those of any period, locality, subject, or author. Well-known examples of this type are Brunet's *Manuel du libraire*, and the

British Museum's *Catalogue of printed books*. The term universal bibliography is sometimes used loosely as a synonym for general bibliography. A complete general bibliography would be a universal bibliography, but while such a work is theoretically possible and was long the dream of bibliographers, it has never been compiled and probably never can be.

2. A national bibliography is (1) a list of books published in a given country or (2) a list of works about a given country. Examples of the first meaning are the *English catalogue*, the *American catalog*, Evans' *American bibliography*, Lorenz' *Catalogue général de la librairie française*, and of the second the *Bibliographie der schweizerischen Landeskunde*, now in process of publication. The term regional bibliography is sometimes used instead of national. When the region in question is small, e. g., a town or county, the term local bibliography is used.

3. Trade bibliography is the term used to describe bibliographies compiled primarily to aid the book trade by supplying information as to what books are in print or on sale; when, where, and by whom published; at what price, etc. Publishers', book-sellers', and auctioneers' catalogs, lists of second-hand books, records of prices paid at auction sales, weekly, monthly, and annual lists of new publications, lists of books in print, are among the kinds of bibliographies that fall within this class. The great national bibliographies, such as the *English catalogue*, are technically trade bibliographies, as they are generally issued under publishers' auspices and in the interest of the trade, but they serve so many other purposes that they are put in the other classification. Trade bibliographies are, of course, quite as useful to book-buyers, especially libraries, as to book-sellers.

4. An author bibliography is a list of the books and articles by, or by and about, an author.

5. A subject bibliography is a list of books and articles about a given subject, as Larned's *Literature of American history*. Subject bibliographies may be further distinguished as a com-

plete bibliography of a subject, a selected bibliography of a subject, or a reading list on that subject. A bibliography is never absolutely complete, but it is called a complete bibliography when the compiler has attempted to include all the literature within the defined limits of his subject. A selected bibliography is one which includes a portion of the literature of the subject, selected from the whole literature because of greater value or special suitability for a given use. A reading list is a still more closely selected bibliography designed to give advice as to reading on a given subject and usually supplied with critical notes. It is not infrequently compiled with a special clientèle in view, i.e., for readers in a given library, for high-school students, for club work, etc.

6. A bio-bibliography is a work which gives both biographies of writers and lists of their writings, with the biographical and bibliographical elements about equally balanced. The most familiar example of this type of bibliography is Allibone's *Dictionary of authors*.

STANDARDS OF BIBLIOGRAPHIC WORK

Modern bibliographers recognize certain standards by which the reference value of bibliographies is to be judged and by which bibliographic work, undertaken either by libraries or by individuals, should be guided. These standards relate to the authority of the compiler and to the arrangement, definition of scope, fulness of information, and annotation of the bibliography, and to location of copies of books listed.

Compiler.—The compiler should have at least an elementary knowledge of cataloging and bibliographic rules, and for bibliographies of rare books should have besides an expert knowledge of the rules of bibliographic description. For subject bibliography the compilation, or at least the classification, selection, and annotation should be done, or directed and revised, by an expert in the subject. Subject bibliographies compiled

without expert direction usually suffer from omissions and unscientific classification and lack authority in both selection and evaluation.

Arrangement.—The arrangement will depend upon the type of bibliography, as no one arrangement is best for all types. In general, national, or rare book bibliographies, or in any bibliography which will be consulted principally for information about individual books, either an alphabetic author arrangement (with subject and title-index) or a dictionary arrangement is most satisfactory. In an author bibliography a chronologic arrangement by dates of publication is generally regarded as best, because it shows most clearly the development of the author's work and the ebb and flow in the amount of writing about him. Such a bibliography should have a title and subject index which should include authors' names also if the bibliography includes works about the author. A subject bibliography is best arranged in either classified or alphabetic subject order with an alphabetic index to authors, small subjects, and some titles. Bibliographies of early printed books are sometimes arranged by place of printing or by printers' names. Such an arrangement has certain advantages for a study of the history of printing, but is less convenient for ready reference in looking up an individual book than an author arrangement with printers' and place names brought out in the index. To sum up, every well-made bibliography should be so arranged and indexed that its contents can be found from the point of view of author, title, large subject, small subject, and, often, place and personal names, and when only one point of view is furnished in the main arrangement, the others should be provided for in the index.

Definition of scope.—The scope of a bibliography should be carefully defined and the limits thus set strictly adhered to, so that the user may know for just what purpose the work may be consulted, what material he may expect to find in it, and

what material will certainly be excluded. Definition of scope should include an exact statement of the subject, of the period covered if there are limitations in point of date, and of the languages included if there are language limitations. Whenever possible the scope of a bibliography should be indicated exactly in the title, and if, for any reason, the compiler decides to depart from the limits laid down in the title, an exact statement of such variation should be included in the preface, for the information of the user of the bibliography who otherwise might be led astray by the inclusion or omission of material not specified in the title.

Fulness of information.—The fulness of information for title and collation will differ greatly according to the form or purpose of the bibliography. The minimum generally includes author's full name, complete title, edition, place, and date of publication, publisher, main paging, size, and, in case of books in print at the time of compilation, the listed price. In popular reading lists somewhat briefer information is allowable, and in bibliographies of rare books much more detail is called for. All items of information should be verified by reference to the book itself, as a cardinal point of modern bibliography is not to include any book which has not been examined by someone working on the bibliography, whenever such examination is at all possible. When for exceptional reasons some book has been included without such examination, a note or arbitrary sign should indicate that fact, partly to save the compiler from criticism in case of error in title, but principally to warn the user of the bibliography that the title may need verification.

Annotation.—Annotation enhances the value of any bibliography and is absolutely necessary in selected subject bibliographies and reading lists, in bibliographies of rare books, and in well-made author bibliographies. Such annotation may be (1) contents notes, (2) descriptive notes indicating the scope and treatment of a given book but not passing judgment upon it,

(3) evaluating notes, to estimate the authority of a book, its good and bad points, special application, (4) historical and bibliographical notes, giving details of the book's history, editions, changes in title, disputed authorship, translations, etc. Notes of the first and second type are used principally in general and complete bibliographies; notes of the first, second, and especially the third type in selected bibliographies and reading lists, while notes of the fourth type occur principally in bibliographies of rare books and author bibliographies. Contents, descriptive, and historical notes may be prepared by a bibliographer, but critical notes should always be prepared by an expert on the subject-matter of the book in question.

Location of copies.—A requirement increasingly insisted upon by modern bibliography is that in the case of any book at all rare or unusual the bibliography must indicate at least one library which possesses a copy. This is done most easily by simply recording the library which contains the copy examined by the bibliographer. The record is enhanced in value if several copies located in different regions can be indicated, including one in some library which allows inter-library loans. The best example of a bibliography indicating location of copies is the *Church catalogue of Americana* which refers in all to fifty libraries, but other well-known examples are Sabin's *Dictionary of books relating to America*, Evans' *American bibliography*, and the Persius bibliography in the Harvard bibliographical contributions. It is impossible to overestimate the value of such information to research workers who need to know, not only what the literature of a subject is, but also where it may be found.

USE OF BIBLIOGRAPHY IN LIBRARY WORK

Practical bibliography is the basis for all successful effort in the selection, acquisition, recording, and use of books in a library, and a knowledge of existing bibliographies and skill in

using them are prime requisites in all except the most mechanical branches of library work. The branches of the library service in which this is most true are the administration offices, the order, exchange, and gift departments, the catalog department, the reference department, the loan department, and the binding and repair department.

1. **Administration offices.**—It goes without saying that the chief librarian, like any specialist, needs to know the bibliography of his own subject in order to be able to find out what methods have been employed in other times or places, and what new things are being tried out, accepted, or rejected. He needs a knowledge of the bibliographies of other subjects, however, for the building up of the library collections, both if he selects the books for purchase himself and if he prepares lists for submission to a committee. This is less marked in a college library where book selection is done principally by members of the faculty. If the librarian is building up a special collection on any given subject he must know how to get at the complete bibliography of the subject; if he is purchasing original sources for a research library he must know and use the great bibliographies of sources and documents, and if he is trying to spend a limited appropriation to best advantage by selecting only the best books on a subject he needs to use the selected and annotated subject bibliographies.

Order, gift, and exchange departments.—In the departments charged with the acquisition of material the use of bibliography is very great if the departments are doing their best work. Trade and national bibliographies supply information about the editions, bindings, publisher, date, and price of a work to be purchased, the publisher's address, whether or not the book is in print, and the comparative prices of English and American editions when the book is published in two places. If the book is out of print or has been published long enough to come upon the second-hand market, its auction price, recorded

second-hand price, and rarity can all be ascertained by an intelligent use of bibliographies of auction sales and various antiquarian lists. Many libraries, through failure to use existing bibliographies, buy an expensive American edition instead of the equally good and less expensive English edition, order a new copy when a second-hand copy is obtainable at half price, or accept the first quotation on an out-of-print book when the market price as recorded in auction lists is considerably lower. Such bibliographies enable the order department to check so-called "bargains" and to guard against subscription sets and "de luxe" editions. In the case of rare books and long and complicated sets, the bibliographies which give full collations and notes enable the department to make sure that the right book has been supplied, or that the set is complete, and furnish a ground for argument in case an imperfect copy has to be returned or a missing part claimed. A knowledge and use of other types of bibliography, especially institutional and official bibliographies, will often suggest ways in which copies can be procured by gift or exchange and thus save the whole cost of the book. Unnecessary expenditure is also avoided when bibliographies are used to ascertain that a certain work recommended for purchase was either reprinted from some periodical or previously published under some other title, and is already in the library in its earlier form.

Catalog department.—To the catalog department bibliography is of the greatest possible use as a source of information about books to be cataloged, as an aid in the assigning of correct author and subject entries, classification, and cross-references. Bibliographies are most important aids for such questions as authorship of anonymous and pseudonymous books, disputed authorship, authors' full names and dates, preferred entry for anonymous classics, changes in title in different editions, dates of publication when no date appears on title-page, verification of editions, changes of titles of periodicals, names of learned

societies, and contents and order of long and involved series. For such points bibliographies must be used intelligently and with a full knowledge of their relative merits and authority, but so used they can be of the greatest help in raising the quality of cataloging in any given library, as the best bibliographies are prepared by people who know far more about research work than the average cataloger and embody the results of more extended research than could be afforded in most libraries. Carefully made subject bibliographies furnish valuable help in subject heading and classification of difficult books, both through the headings under which books are entered in the bibliographies and through the descriptive annotations which indicate concisely the subject and scope of the book. Much unnecessary analytic work may be saved if the cataloger knows what printed bibliographies and indexes can be used as practical substitutes for analysis in the card catalog. The most familiar examples of such substitutes are the various indexes to periodicals and the *A.L.A. index to general literature*. Finally, to the cataloger who is making an annotated catalog, bibliographies are helpful in furnishing sample annotations and facts for new notes.

Loan department.—In the routine work of the loan department there is little need for a knowledge of bibliography, but there are certain features of loan work in which bibliography is of great help. If the loan department has the task of deciding what books should be restricted from general circulation, either on account of character or because of their value or rarity, then a knowledge of bibliography is of prime importance. Lack of such knowledge works harm in two ways. The loan department which lacks such information may cause loss to the library by allowing the circulation of unrecognized first editions. On the other hand, the loan department which restricts every out-of-print or old book on the ground of rarity and value is annoying the public unnecessarily, since a knowledge of antiquarian

bibliography would show that in many cases such books are neither rare nor valuable, and if lost could be replaced at small expense from second-hand stock. If the loan department has charge of requests for inter-library loans, knowledge of bibliography helps in two respects: (1) it often makes it possible to ascertain through printed catalogs and bibliographies, which mark location of copies, where a certain book may be found, and (2) in cases where no location is indicated it at least supplies the correct author, title, edition, and date of the book wanted.

Binding department.—In the binding department a knowledge of bibliography is absolutely necessary if rare books are to be saved from depreciation in value and if periodicals and books are to be bound in such a way as best to facilitate their use by readers. The assistant who gives binding directions must be enough of a bibliographer to know when a book may be rebound merely with a view to strength and utility and when, because of its value, it must be rebound with the utmost care as to “no trimming,” preservation of all covers, original binding, etc. Use of bibliographies will help in deciding such cases, and also in deciding, in the case of ordinary books, whether it will be cheaper to let a book wear out and replace it from the second-hand market or whether the value or use of the book is such as to make it better to rebind. Libraries often waste money in rebinding superseded editions of scientific works. A knowledge of bibliography helps the binding assistant to decide in what cases all such editions must be kept for the sake of historical completeness, and in what other cases they may be discarded. Again, if decisions as to form of binding and assignment of lettering are to be made with the best use of the book in view, the assistant should know bibliographical methods and how books and periodicals are referred to in much-used bibliographies. Familiar examples of this are certain periodicals which have two series of volume numbers but are referred to by only one set in *Poole's index*. Unless the “Poole

numbers" are gilded on the binding, both readers and reference librarian have constant trouble in finding the right references. The same thing holds true in the case of periodicals, particularly foreign journals, which are cited in some bibliographies by date and in others by volume. Readers will ask for them by either reference, and unless the binding shows both, delay in finding the books may result. The binding of complicated foreign sets may be all wrong unless the binding assistant is a bibliographer and knows how these sets are meant to be put together. In the case of a series within a series which has separate title-pages and paging and is referred to by its own title in the bibliographies, much confusion and loss of time to the reader may result if the binding assistant has bound the set incorrectly. Again, the binding assistant, if not a bibliographer, will often fail to preserve covers which are necessary to complete sets. For example, English and American periodicals usually have the date given both on the cover and on the first page of each number, but many foreign periodicals have the date only on the cover, and if such covers are discarded there is delay in finding an article for which the inquirer has perhaps only a month and year reference and not volume and page. If the binding assistant knows bibliographical methods and use, he can make his binding a real aid to quick loan and reference service.

Reference department.—It is in reference work, however, that a knowledge of bibliography is most indispensable. This is the case not only in college and university libraries where over 50 per cent of all questions and 80 per cent or 90 per cent of the questions asked by advanced readers must be answered by the aid of bibliographies but also in public libraries, where, while the number of direct bibliographic questions is smaller and the bibliographies used of a different type, the need of bibliographic knowledge on the part of the reference librarian is not less. Especially is this true in public libraries specializing in scientific and technical subjects, where it is of first importance

to the reference librarian to be able to ascertain quickly the latest and best reference on the subject. It is almost equally true in the small library which has perhaps no books in its card catalog on a given subject and must depend upon bibliographies to indicate analytic material, and in the large library which has so many books entered under one subject that it needs bibliographies to point out the best.

Bibliographies are needed in reference work for all the purposes for which they are needed in other departments, as all questions about authorship, dates, value, and first editions which can possibly be asked in the work of the other departments are asked even more frequently in reference work. In addition, the reference librarian has special need of bibliographies. As aids to the verification of titles referred to incorrectly or incompletely in footnotes or references in textbooks and as supplements to the card catalog when all that a reader knows about a book is from some point of view for which the catalog does not provide, bibliographies are invaluable. This is especially true of title entries. Every reference librarian knows that readers remember books by title only more frequently than catalogers will believe possible, and bibliographies, such as the *United States Catalog*, which enter freely under title meet such demands.

Every reference department needs a well-organized collection of bibliographies easily accessible to the public as well as to the reference librarian. Such reference books are usually wanted for a moment's consultation only, and are often not used if not at hand. The practice of regarding general and national bibliographies and printed catalogs as tools for the librarian and his assistants, not as reference books for the use of readers, does not make for good service to the public. If the library service and funds warrant, it may be desirable to buy extra copies for staff use, but the only copies should never be segregated in workrooms where they are not easily accessible

for public use. Finally, all bibliographies, indexes, and printed catalogs which are to be used as adjuncts to the card catalog, especially as substitutes for analysis, should be organized in close connection with the card catalog and not shelved at a distance from it. This is true, not only of such obvious indexes as Poole, but of the best annual bibliographies, such as Griffin's *Writings on American history*, which index many periodicals. The reference department which has a good collection of bibliographies so assembled and organized has the material equipment for the highest grade of reference work.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL WORK DONE BY LIBRARIES

The bibliographical work done by libraries falls into five main classes.

1. **The card catalog of the library.**—In any library the card catalog is the main bibliographical and reference tool for that particular library, and whether it is a good or bad tool depends upon the quality of cataloging in the library and the clearness with which the librarian and trustees understand the fact that good cataloging is the basis of all satisfactory service to the public. Generally the bibliographic work which a library puts into its card catalog is useful only to its immediate clientèle, but in the case of libraries which print their cards, this bibliographic work is of great value to other libraries. The Library of Congress printed cards, of which depository sets are now accessible in important cities in this country, form the most useful general bibliography or author catalog which we now have with the single exception of the British Museum catalog. The John Crerar, University of Chicago, and Harvard cards are also useful. The library which has a union card catalog containing the cards printed by these four libraries has a bibliographical and reference tool of immense and constantly increasing importance.

2. **Printed library catalog in book form.**—Certain libraries have issued printed catalogs which form important and useful bibliographies. The most important of these is the great author catalog of the British Museum which was for long the most complete and useful general bibliography in existence and is now rivaled only by the growing card catalog of the Library of Congress and the still unfinished book catalog of the Bibliothèque nationale. Other printed library catalogs which represent important contributions to bibliography are the catalogs of the Advocates' library at Edinburgh, the London library, the Peabody Institute at Baltimore, the Boston Athenaeum, the Astor library (now New York public library), and the great *Index-Catalogue* of the Surgeon-General's library in Washington.

3. **Catalogs of special collections.**—Certain libraries possessing important special collections have issued printed catalogs of such collections which form valuable contributions to subject bibliography. The number of such catalogs is increasing, and it seems probable that the most valuable bibliographical work done by libraries in the future will be in the line of just such subject catalogs. Among the best bibliographies of this type are catalogs of the Dante and Icelandic collections at Cornell, of the Shakspeare, Spanish, Music, and Architecture collections in the Boston public library; of the collections of Atlases, Maps, Operas, etc., in the Library of Congress; of Romances, Early printed books, and Natural history in the British Museum, and many others. Several catalogs published in the Harvard bibliographical contributions are admirable examples of bibliographies of small subjects, e.g., the catalog of the Persius collection, which not only lists all books in the Harvard Persius collection, but refers to other titles or copies to be found in six other American libraries. The two American libraries which are now doing most for bibliography by publishing catalogs of their special collections are the Library of Congress and the New York public library. The special catalogs of the Library

of Congress mentioned above are valuable, not only because of the richness of the collections which they list, but also because of their detailed historical and bibliographical notes. The New York public library is printing in its *Bulletin*, and reissuing in separate form, catalogs of its special collections, which, while less valuable from the point of view of cataloging detail and bibliographic notes than the Library of Congress lists, are very useful subject bibliographies, because of the extent and richness of the collections listed.

4. **Selected subject bibliographies.**—Certain libraries have published subject bibliographies, which, while based largely upon collections in the libraries in question, are not catalogs of special collections, but attempts to list the best or most timely literature on the subject, regardless of where it is to be found. The best known examples of this type are the subject bibliographies, mainly on topics in political and social science, published by the Library of Congress, and the bibliographies and reading lists prepared by students in the New York State library school and printed by the New York State library. Other examples are the occasional bibliographies issued by university libraries. Such bibliographies, while they do not have the permanent reference value which comes from the greater completeness and the bibliographical annotation given in the catalogs and special collections, are often more useful in selection of best or most recent books and articles.

5. **Reading lists for special occasions or uses.**—Finally, many libraries have issued from time to time brief selected bibliographies or reading lists intended generally to meet some purely local or temporary use and to serve as a guide to best reading on the subjects thus in demand. Such reading lists are always brief, as far as cataloging detail is concerned, are generally selected, not from the mass of material on the subject, but from that available in one given library, and often contain some critical annotations to aid the reader in his choice. As reference

bibliographies they are of no permanent value aside from their local use, but the fact that they suggest a small number of good books on popular subjects and refer to books and periodicals which are to be found in most fair-sized libraries makes them often serviceable and suggestive to other libraries having similar problems and demands. Examples of such lists are the various holiday reading lists issued by public libraries and library commissions, the selected author bibliographies published by the Brooklyn public library, and reading lists to accompany syllabi printed by some college libraries and extension departments.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SOCIETIES

While bibliophile societies have a much earlier origin, societies devoted to practical bibliography are mainly a development of the last twenty years. Up to the present time they have been something of a disappointment to the practical bibliographer, for while there is undoubtedly a definite field of work for such societies, the aggregate of the work accomplished to date has hardly seemed commensurate to the time and labor expended.

The proper work of a bibliographical society is generally said to be threefold, namely, (1) a survey of the field of bibliographical endeavor with a view to ascertaining what actually has and has not been done; (2) the arranging for the compilation of new bibliographies in fields found to be incompletely covered and for the publication of such bibliographies when completed; and (3) the dissemination of information about bibliographies, especially those recently published or in process of compilation. The first and second branches of activity are usually undertaken through committee work, co-operation with learned societies, etc., while the third is carried out through papers and discussions at the meetings of the society and lists and notes in the society journal.

One reason why comparatively few results of great practical value have been accomplished by such societies is that too little attention has been given to energetic constructive committee work and too much, in proportion, to the preparation of papers on interesting points of antiquarian bibliography. The bibliographical societies whose work is of most general interest to librarians are the Bibliographical society, London; the Bibliographical society of America; the Société française de bibliographie; the Deutsche bibliographische Gesellschaft; and the Institut international de bibliographie, at Brussels.

The Bibliographical society, London, founded in 1892, is the oldest and so far the most successful of the bibliographical societies mentioned. It has issued three series of publications of permanent value: (1) Transactions, which contain papers read at the meetings, proceedings, news notes, lists of bibliographies, and occasional bibliographies themselves; (2) an octavo series of separate publications which includes some very valuable bibliographies on subjects in English literature and early English bibliography; and (3) a quarto series of illustrated monographs, mostly on subjects connected with the history of printing. Its publications are sold only to members.

The Bibliographical society of America was founded in 1904 as a continuation on a national scale of the Bibliographical society of Chicago. In addition to its general objects the society proposed to undertake two definite pieces of work, a continuation of Sabin's *Dictionary of books relating to America*, which ceased publication in 1892 with the letter S, and the compilation of a list of incunabula in American libraries. Neither of these undertakings has yet been completed, although the committees in charge have reported progress. As a result of co-operation between the society and some members of the Modern language association, an annotated bibliography of the bibliographic sources available for the study of English philology, compiled by Professor C. S. Northup, of Cornell University, is about

ready for printing. The society issued a *Bulletin*, 1905-10, and *Papers and Proceedings*, 1904 to date.

The Société française de bibliographie was organized in 1906, with three special purposes in view: (1) the improvement of existing lists of current bibliography, especially the weekly *Bibliographie de la France*, (2) a revival, if possible, of the general index to French periodicals, Jordell's *Répertoire*, which ceased publication in 1899, and (3) a bibliography of French official publications since 1815. The society has issued to date six volumes of miscellaneous publications, but has published no results so far within its three special fields of activity.

The Deutsche bibliographische Gesellschaft, organized in 1902, has devoted its attention primarily to the publishing of a *Bibliographisches Repertorium*, or series of index catalogs to hitherto unindexed periodicals of the nineteenth century, especially the periodicals of the Romantic and Young Germany movements. In addition to the six volumes of the *Repertorium* issued so far, the society has issued several miscellaneous works, including a Hebbel bibliography.

The Institut international at Brussels, organized in 1895, differs from the societies already mentioned in that its interests and activities are not limited to the bibliography of any one country, but extend to the promotion, extension, and improvement of bibliographical work in general and to the recording of universal bibliography. Its special undertakings are the organization of international congresses of bibliography and documentation, the extension of the use of the Decimal Classification which it regards as the ideal classification for international bibliography, and the compilation of a universal bibliography, on cards, made up of all the printed cards available, of mounted clippings, and manuscript entries. It supplies copies of its cards on any subject or for any author at a charge of one cent each. It issues a *Bulletin*, a long series of miscellaneous publications, including its *Manuel du répertoire bibliographique universel*, which

is a French edition, much extended, of the Decimal Classification, and various classified bibliographies.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND GOVERNMENT BUREAUS

Very important contributions to bibliography have been made by certain learned societies. That such contributions have been both more numerous and important than the contributions of the bibliographical societies is due to the fact that such organizations of special workers not only realize the vital necessity of bibliographies in their own field, but have within their own membership specialists capable of making such subject bibliographies. Through their larger membership learned societies are usually in a better position financially to arrange for the publication of bibliographic work. Among the societies which have either originated or financed such bibliographic work should be mentioned the American historical association, which has published numerous bibliographies in its annual reports, including a very complete bibliography of American historical societies by A. P. C. Griffin, and an annual bibliography, *Writings on American history*, by G. G. Griffin; the Carnegie Institution of Washington, which has financed two bibliographic enterprises of the first importance, namely, the important series of indexes to American state documents, by A. R. Hasse, and the lists of materials on American history in foreign archives, prepared for the institution by various members of the American historical association; and the Royal society of London, which has nearly completed the publication of its monumental *Catalogue of scientific papers*, which forms an author and a subject index to the periodical literature of science of the nineteenth century.

Government work in bibliography is of two kinds: (1) the cataloging and indexing of the publications issued by the government itself, and (2) the preparation by government bureaus of bibliographies and indexes on subjects within the

special fields of such bureaus. Examples of the first type are the bibliographic publications of the Superintendent of Documents at Washington, especially the biennial *Document catalogue* and the *Monthly catalogue* of United States public documents. The second type is well represented by such bibliographies as the *Catalogue and index of North American geology*, issued annually with occasional cumulations by the United States Geological survey; the *Experiment station record*, published by the United States Bureau of experiment stations, which lists and digests current agricultural publications throughout the world; and the annual bibliography of French university dissertations, published by the French Ministry of Public Instruction. It is more and more generally recognized that the preparation or subsidizing of high-grade bibliographies is as much a matter of the public service as is the scientific and statistical work of government bureaus.

CO-OPERATIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY

Co-operative bibliographical work is that effected through the joint efforts or support of several institutions and organizations working together to accomplish something which is either too large to be undertaken by any one organization or which can be better done through co-operation. Such co-operative work has produced five main types of co-operative bibliographies: (1) co-operative indexing, to the work of which each collaborator contributes the actual indexing of certain periodicals or other publications for which it has made itself responsible; (2) union lists or catalogs of certain kinds of works to be found in a given regional group of libraries; (3) bibliographies of interest in more than one subject or from more than one point of view, prepared by representatives of the different subjects; (4) subject bibliographies of international scope compiled through the co-operation of committees in the various countries concerned, such as the monthly and annual

bibliographies carried on between 1905 and 1912 by the International institutes of social bibliography, technology, medicine, and jurisprudence at Berlin, and the well-known *International catalogue of scientific literature*; and (5) bibliographic work carried on under one direction, with co-operative aid in the way of money subsidies only, such as the work of the Concilium bibliographicum at Zurich.

The Berlin bibliographies, with the exception of the bibliography of the social sciences which was continued by the German government, ceased in 1912. The *International catalogue* has been variously criticized for incompleteness, unsatisfactory classification, and delay in issue, but remains the most successful instance of international co-operation in a large field. In subjects, however, in which its book bibliographies overlap the card bibliographies of the Concilium bibliographicum the latter are often more complete, more accurate, and are issued with much greater promptness.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

General articles

Bibliographie. *La grande encyclopédie*, 6:598-641.

By E. D. Grand. An excellent general and historical survey of all aspects of the subject, with a full bibliography of the general subject, and lists of printed bibliographies.

Bibliography. *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 9th ed., 3:651-63.

Good general survey.

Bibliography and bibliography. *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 11th ed., 3:908-11.

By A. W. Pollard. Discusses bibliography in the sense of examination, collation, and description of books, and gives detailed rules for such work.

Cole, George Watson. *Compiling a bibliography; practical hints with illustrative examples, concerning the collection, recording, and arrangement of bibliographical materials*. N.Y. 1902. 20 p.

Reprinted, with additions, from the *Library journal*, 26:791-95, 859-63, November-December 1901.

Greg, W. W. What is bibliography. Bibliographical society, London. Transactions, 12:39-53.

Discusses a different use and aspect of bibliography, i.e., the use of "critical bibliography" in textual criticism.

Keogh, Andrew. Bibliography. A.L.A. Bulletin, 1:35-39, July 1907.

Excellent survey of value of practical bibliography.

Parsons, R. W. Introduction to elementary bibliography. London, 1913. 12 p.

Reprinted from the *Librarian*, 3:43-50, 84-88, September-October 1912.

Societies

Bibliographical society, London. Rules and list of members, 1913. 15 p.

Gives particulars of membership and sale of publications and prints on inside of covers a full list of the Society's publications.

——— Transactions, v. 1-12, 1892-1913. London, 1893-1914. 12 v.

Bibliographical society of America. Bulletin, v. 1-4, 1907-12. Chicago, 1907-13. 4 v.

——— Papers, v. 1-8, 1904-13. Chicago, 1906-14. 8 v.

See especially the various papers and committee reports on work undertaken or projected by the society.

Société française de bibliographie. Annuaire, v. 1, 1906. Chartres, 1907. 54 p.

Includes statement of projected work and an excellent summary of the condition of current subject bibliography in France, by Henri Stein.

Co-operation

Gunnell, Leonard C. The second international convention of the International catalogue of scientific literature. London, 1910. Science, n.s., 33:713-18, 12 May 1911.

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Describes work of Concilium bibliographicum.
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69 p. pub. no. 82.
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- Voge, A. L. Indexing of periodical literature and the work of the Concilium bibliographicum, Zurich. Bibliographical society of America. *Proceedings*, 2:116-34, 1907-8.
- von Noé, A. C. International institutes in Berlin for the bibliography of the social sciences, medicine, jurisprudence, and technology. Bibliographical society of America. *Papers*, 5:97-107, 1910.
The various lines of work carried on by the institutes named in this article have been discontinued since 1912.

PAMPHLETS AND MINOR LIBRARY MATERIAL

There are many things beside books which libraries properly may collect, though there certainly are things collected by some libraries which seem quite outside their warrantable field and far more appropriate in museums. In a broad way may it not be said that all products of the book arts, that is, of writing, printing, binding, and illustration, may be considered as proper components of a library? With this definition in mind the library may collect in addition to printed and bound books (1) manuscripts, (2) pamphlets, (3) broadsides, (4) clippings, (5) maps and plans, (6) music, (7) prints, (8) photographs and pictures, (9) bookplates; to which some libraries have added lantern slides, victrola records, moving-picture films, phonograph records, and perhaps other classes of material unknown to the writer. This chapter will consider as proper library material all of the first nine named above except manuscripts, and will try to indicate some of the ways in which these different classes of material may be organized for use, or, failing of independent treatment, to cite the chief contributions of others in the appended bibliography.

Manuscripts will be omitted as they relate to the large field of archives, the organization and administration of which is a separate science. Manuscripts and archives are often, and appropriately, in the custody of libraries, but their care and use are so unique that they can scarcely be considered in this chapter. In recent years the terms archival science, documentation, archivist, have grown up as part of the nomenclature of this separate science. The Library of Congress issued in 1913 *Notes on the care, cataloguing, calendaring, and arranging of manuscripts*, by J. C. Fitzpatrick, and there are other guides still more detailed.

Nothing so straitly challenges Mr. C. A. Cutter's definition of the functions of a library—"to get, to keep and to use"—as a consideration of the best treatment for pamphlets. Most libraries, indeed, if their librarians be wise, will not keep even all the *bound books* which come to them, but the enormity of rejecting unsuitable gifts seems less with pamphlets and minor material. Only the very largest libraries, not a dozen in this country, will "get" everything they can; still fewer will mean to "keep" (in the permanent sense) everything they get. The "keeping" will be modified consciously or unconsciously by such reservations as "till worn out" or "as long as useful" or "till later or better material appears." The same considerations give serious pause to the librarian who would observe the thoroughly valid counsel of perfection "bind everything you keep," which in these days is more likely to be amended to read "bind everything you are sure will be kept permanently."

Despite these revisions of Mr. Cutter's terse program the ideal ultimate form for all printed library material is the bound book. No pamphlet while unbound ever gets the same respect and consideration from staff or students as when bound, nor is it so well protected against dust, loss, and injury. The ideal treatment of pamphlets would bind and fully catalog each one separately. The moment they are grouped in volumes something is conceded to the ideal, for there is a loss in effective, separate classification and shelving. The same is true of music, broadsides, clippings. The utmost safety would seem to result from making them up in bound volumes, yet they are more easily and effectively used when left unbound and every library will find current use for a large number of pamphlets, clippings, broadsides, pictures, etc., which are of so ephemeral a value that it does not seem worth while to consider permanent preservation. The few great reservoir libraries will save everything in permanent form, but many small and some larger

libraries will expect to wear out in immediate use, or to throw away if not worn out when the keen "first use" is over, the greater number of separate pamphlets, i.e., those which do not form parts of serials. Many libraries recognize this in the use of the vertical file for pamphlets and clippings. Earlier devices for holding unbound material are envelopes, manila folders, filing boxes, pamphlet cases, and strawboard or pulpboard covers, all designed for the temporary accommodation of material of this sort, which has not proved its permanent worth or which the library is not yet ready to bind.

The feature of chief significance about pamphlets and minor printed material is its enormous increase in quantity and in reference value within twenty or twenty-five years. It has lately been said (E. E. Slosson, *New York Libraries*, November, 1915), "The least valued volumes in the library are those with the finest bindings. The most valued are those with no bindings at all. The efficiency of a library is in proportion to the amount of unbound literature it contains." This makes the effective handling of pamphlets a bigger and more important library problem than ever before and increases opportunities for wasting time, labor, and money on them, while it increases also the returns from time and money wisely spent. This treatment, too, will differ in libraries of different types. In those few libraries which circulate nothing all the material may be bound without hindering its utmost use, while circulating libraries will find unbound material much more mobile and available for a far greater number of separate borrowers and purposes. The various kinds of material are treated separately below.

PAMPHLETS

Pamphlets are defined: "A printed work consisting of sheets, generally few, stitched but not permanently bound" (*Standard Dictionary*); "A printed work consisting of a few sheets of paper stitched together but not bound" (*Century*

Dictionary); "A thin limp book" (Cutter). Most libraries will probably agree on the following definition: a piece of printed matter which consists of more than two printed pages and which has no other binding than the pamphlet itself or a paper cover. Strictly construed, this will include all unbound periodicals, sequents, and parts of books commonly called continuations, which appear from time to time. While all unbound periodicals and continuations are pamphlets, they are not usually so considered,¹ and the various ways of treating them, looking toward their initial recording and their ultimate form for use, are so well recognized that they need not be dwelt upon here. Here, again, the ideal procedure looks toward the ultimate preservation of every number of a periodical in a bound volume to form part of a set, and the only problem the separate parts present is the safest care and the easiest use during the time they remain unbound awaiting completion of the volumes. There have been, it is true, sober suggestions of "librissection,"² which advocate resolving every number of a serial into its separate articles and treating each one fully and alone as to binding, filing, classification, cataloging, etc., but such schemes are fanciful rather than practical in any but libraries on very special subjects, handling much material neither indexed nor likely to be. Most libraries, however, will receive currently a good many periodicals valuable enough to accept as gifts, sometimes even to pay for, perhaps even of some permanent value, but which because of scanty funds or for other reasons of policy they will not plan to bind at all or in permanent and definitive form; many of them will not even be long kept. For such titles it is imperative that the current periodical check list shall show, not only that they are *not* to be bound, but

¹ Biscoe, Pamphlets. In Papers prepared for the world's library Congress. 1893, pp. 826-35.

² *Public libraries*, 15:158, 186. *Independent*, 67:1125-28, November 18, 1909. *Library association record*, 17:540-47, 1915.

exactly what *is* to be done with the numbers at the end of the year or when the volume is complete. They may be kept on the permanent shelves indefinitely unbound (some libraries keep their unbound periodicals in an alphabetic file by titles), cut up for the clippings file or picture collection, sent to the duplicate collection, or to hospitals or kindred institutions.

The serials and other continuations having thus been disposed of, perhaps the true, simon-pure pamphlet had better be defined as one that is complete in itself and has no present or prospective relation for purposes of binding, filing, or use with any other pamphlet. These may be treated in several ways, first assuming that, on receipt, a tentative selection has been made and material of no apparent value or interest to the particular library has been discarded. The definitive selection will come later after doubtful pamphlets have been given a chance to prove their value. They will at first be either:

- (1) Classified and filed unbound in pamphlet boxes, cases, or folders, with or next to the books on the same subjects. If cataloged at all, generally only an author card would be made, the classification providing reasonably for the subject side. When enough pamphlets accumulate bearing the same class number, they are considered for binding in a "pamphlet volume." The criteria which influence this consideration will vary according to the aim, size, policy, etc., of the library. Duplicates will usually be weeded out, and "separates" from serials which the library is regularly binding, or at any rate those on subjects in which the library does not distinctly specialize, will usually be discarded, as well as material palpably too trivial for permanent preservation (who is omniscient enough to do the latter?).
- (2) Classified, perhaps cataloged by authors, and filed in a separate arrangement apart from, though as near as possible to, the books on the same subjects. Such arrangement may be in the same folders, cases, or boxes suggested in (1), on separate "pamphlet" shelves, or in the conventional vertical

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file, one on each stack level, with one in the reference room for the freshest material. The vertical file, admirable as it is for temporary care of strictly fresh, current pamphlets is too clumsy and expensive in money and precious floor space to be seriously considered for all pamphlets in large libraries. Its use is away from the desideratum of having all material on the same subject in the fewest places. Vertical file space can be conserved, and at the same time the most fugitive material well cared for, by using the file only for pamphlets of not over four pages, for clippings, and for pictures.

- (3) Each pamphlet may be bound separately, probably in a cheap board cover of sufficient weight and permanence to give it a definitely bound appearance, and classified and as fully cataloged as all other books, taking its place on the regular shelves. There are no reasons save those of economy for treating pamphlets differently from books, and great libraries are never thoroughly equipped for research so long as any distinction is made between them.

J. I. WYER, JR.

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COMPILED BY JENNIE D. FELLOWS

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CLIPPINGS

Value.—From the days of the first scrapbook, appreciation of the value of clippings seems steadily to have grown. Newspaper men early saw the worth of an up-to-date file of information not to be had from books, and the first “morgue” was begun in Chicago in 1869. The first clippings bureau (Paris, 1880) gave a new impetus to their use, and in 1896 there was issued in New York the *“Clipping Collector: a monthly magazine devoted to the collection of newspaper clippings for pleasure and profit,”* but this journal was short-lived. Libraries have long recognized the value of clippings in reference and debate work with far more unanimity than they have the best methods of caring for them effectively. Now almost every progressive library has a collection in some form.

Library Treatment.—After having decided the important question of the scope of the collection and arranged for the regular examination of duplicate newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, etc., and for service from clippings bureaus, the more puzzling questions present themselves of preparation, classification, arrangement, and care.

Mounting.—Clippings may be kept unmounted in manila pockets, folders, or envelopes, using preferably one for each subject. In this form they are harder to keep correctly arranged and to use, likelier to be damaged or lost, but less costly to prepare and easier to mail. It is difficult to predicate permanent value of clippings, but whenever such value seems certain they should be carefully mounted and inclosed in a binder. Even for temporary use some libraries mount clippings on manila sheets, 8×10 inches, leaving margins for adding date, class number, or subject heading.

Arrangement.—Arrangement will depend on the type of library to be served. The commonest ways are an alphabetic arrangement by subjects and a classified arrangement like that of the books on the shelves. For a public library or any small collection of clippings the alphabetic arrangement, being self-indexing, probably is easiest for both patrons and assistants to use. The *Readers' Guide* and other more specialized current periodical indexes are helpful in choosing subject headings, since they deal with similar material.

The advocates of a classified arrangement believe that if it is best to classify books, it is no less helpful to arrange other printed material in the same way. A classified arrangement facilitates reference from shelves to files and allows easy transfer of material back and forth between shelves and clipping files if desired. Clippings often require closer classification than books, and any system of classification calls for a subject index. Special libraries have sometimes adopted new schemes for classifying pamphlets and clippings, but one of the standard library classifications is strongly recommended. The disadvantage of attempting to work out a special classification is set forth by L. B. Krause in *Engineering Record*, p. 760, December, 1915.

Filing.—The old, unsatisfactory way of keeping miscellaneous clippings in scrapbooks has been almost entirely superseded by one of the following methods:

- (1) Envelopes arranged in boxes or drawers as a separate collection.
- (2) Pamphlet boxes arranged with the books on the shelves. This method has the advantage of keeping all material on the same subject together. Unless separate boxes are used the clippings are likely to be crushed among the pamphlets, though this can be avoided by putting them in envelopes. To care for such a collection more effectively the pamphlet boxes are sometimes kept in one place and arrangement instead of scattered through the shelves with the books.

(3) Vertical file cases.

With a labeled manila folder for each subject, heavy guide cards for the larger divisions, and the material arranged chronologically in each folder to facilitate "weeding" and to make easy the use of the latest clippings, the vertical file offers one of the most satisfactory methods for keeping such material. Cross-references on sheets the size of the folders should be freely inserted in the file.

Clippings collections may be "weeded out" as considerations of space and available help may dictate, though where room is plenty and the clippings are kept carefully arranged by date the presence of older material does not interfere with the use of the later. A description of the method of "automatic weeding" used in the Newark Public Library is in Miss McVety's "The vertical file" (see bibliography).

Circulation.—Clippings are usually loaned as freely as books; some libraries keep a reference collection as well as one for lending. The "package libraries" now so widely used in university extension and debate work are largely made up of clippings and pamphlets.

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FLORENCE WOODWORTH

BROADSIDES

The best dictionaries agree that a broadside is a single sheet of paper printed on one side only, usually without arrangement in columns. No limits of size are noted or recognized. Handbills, ballads, proclamations, and advertisements are among the chief forms. Broadside were first collected by individuals, and as these private collections came, by gift or purchase, to libraries it became necessary to give thought to their best care. The few printed accounts agree that owing to the cheap paper most often used for a confessedly ephemeral bit of print and the hard usage it receives, no proper care can stop short of mounting each item (by hinges, not by pasting it down) on heavy paper or cardboard. They should never be folded or trimmed no matter how wide the margins. When mounted they had best not be made up into books, but rather be kept flat in boxes or cases opening on the front. Tipping loose broadsides into guard-books has always proved unsatisfactory.

PRINTS

The prime functions of a public collection of prints are the preservation of representative examples of the reproductive graphic arts and the use of such material for the edification and instruction of the public. Print rooms exist both independently and as departments in museums and libraries. The last is the case, for example, in London, Paris, Washington, and New York. The late S. P. Avery, on presenting his collection to the New York Public Library, wrote: "My investigations have convinced me that great libraries, like the British Museum, the National Library of Paris, and the New York Public Library, possess the best facilities for accommodating readers and students." And the late Dr. J. S. Billings pointed out the advantages of such a combination in these words: "A good representative collection of prints is of greatest interest and use to the public in general and to a majority of those specially interested in prints in particular, if it exists in connection with a large library. In the library it can be closely associated with the literature of art, an association which is absolutely necessary to obtain full benefit of each; and it is also available for the student of social history, of the manners, customs, costumes, etc., of a particular people or person in connection with the literature of that subject."

To fill the function of a print department there will be a print room for the use of students and an exhibition room in which prints may be placed before a larger public. The educational mission will be especially performed by exhibitions, which by fairly frequent change and by diversity of art or subject illustrated will have increased effectiveness. Loan exhibits will naturally be utilized. If literature on the subject is shown at the same time, inducement is given to "read up," especially if some handbooks are placed where visitors can examine them, with pencil and paper at hand to note titles. Topics of current interest may at times serve as reason for an exhibit—say, a

Shakespeare celebration, or the death of a noted artist—but that sort of thing should not be pursued exclusively.

The print department of a large library naturally will be administered, in a general way, according to library methods. Prints will be classified and catalogued, as are books. Cases or portfolios may be used to hold prints; in some collections the portfolios containing the smaller sizes of prints (properly mounted) stand upright on the shelves; the larger lie flat.

Even the small library may do something to awaken an interest in prints, to teach its constituents something of the processes by which prints (whether separate or in books) are produced, to lead to an appreciation of their charm.

Beside the aesthetic attraction, prints, like all pictures, have a strong subject interest which frequently serves the reader in search of pictorial facts. This use of pictures extends also to such cheap pictorial matter as can be collected and classified at an expense quite slight in comparison with the cost of "prints" proper.

In its older sense, a print is any impression made on paper, cloth, or other surface by pressing it upon an inked surface, usually of metal, wood, or stone. To such engravings, etchings, and lithographs print collections proper are usually confined. With the development of photography and the photo-mechanical processes of illustration the term "print" came to include reproductions by any photographic process. These form a large part of collections of pictures classified by subject. Such collections are briefly treated in the next paragraph of this chapter.

FRANK WEITENKAMPF

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GENERAL (INCLUDING METHODS)

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The collection in the Newark library serves as an illustration.

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PICTURES

So many public libraries, large and small, collect pictures from those cut from duplicate or discarded books, newspapers, and magazines, and from the many marvelously cheap series of postcards, small and large process reproductions and photographs, up to large and rather expensive wall pictures, that mention of such material seems called for here. The reasons for such a collection and the guiding principles of choosing and buying material are best set forth by Mr. Cutter (see bibliography below for this and later references). Minute and careful account of how one library organized pictures for use appears in the titles by Mr. Dana and Miss Gilson. The Newark pamphlets and the Massachusetts library club reference also give lists of materials and dealers. A careful study of these and the other titles listed below will show how pictures are chosen, procured, and used today in those American libraries in which such work is a minor and not the major interest. They are used for reference work, bulletins, and exhibits within the library, and are lent as freely as books to schools, clubs, institutions, and individuals, sometimes in connection with the reference or circulation department, sometimes from a separate art room or department.

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Packed with facts, hints, and suggestions as to purchase, organization, and use of all kinds of pictures.

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Describes acquisition, care, classification, cataloging, and use of small pictures.

MUSIC

The systematic accumulation of music scores by public libraries in general is of comparatively recent origin. Those libraries which have had gifts of music or of money for the purchase of music are rapidly leading the way to the time when music will be considered as essential a part of the library's resources as poetry and the drama. Soon it will be considered as serious a lapse for a library to lack the score of "The well-tempered clavichord" or of "The Meistersinger" as to be without *The Iliad* and the plays of Shakespeare.

The notable collections of music in American libraries, as distinct from books about music, are in the Boston Public Library, the Library of Congress, the Newberry Library, and the Library of Yale University. For details about these and other collections, see Johnston and Mudge, "Special collections in libraries in the United States."

Besides these great collections many public libraries, large and small, in recent years have established lending collections

of scores, vocal and instrumental music, and in some cases of perforated music rolls for use in mechanical piano-players. Typical collections are in the public libraries of Chicago, Los Angeles, Louisville, and Brookline.

The selection of titles for such collections is a most important matter. It should be done by one with expert knowledge and a fine critical taste in music. The average library which uses a portion of its book fund to buy music can scarcely aim at a comprehensive collection, but must be content to begin with a selection of the best music—that which will be of lasting value to the public, especially to the educated musician and to the student.

Music is expensive to bind and to catalog, and purchases should be made with a clear understanding of the whole expense involved and of the permanent value to the public of the music bought. To buy largely of unbound sheet music, especially by untried composers of doubtful talents, entails a very great expense, with uncertain gain to the library or the public. The works of the great masters may be bought in good, serviceable, inexpensive editions, often well bound. These are within the reach of the small library and should form the basis of the music collection. Local conditions should determine the scope of the collection. Any community, however small, will welcome music for the piano for two and four hands, the best songs, operas, and oratorios. Beyond these few kinds the choice is infinite, and must vary with the character of the community and the resources of the library. There are few lists which are of much help for the small library. The best of these are noted in the appended bibliography.

Music more than almost any other form of library material suffers if not properly bound. The most important points in its care are the binding, including some provision for charging it if loaned, and such cataloging or indexing of it as will make its separate pieces as freely available as the books in a library. A

few libraries have remote or soundproof rooms equipped with different instruments where the music may be tried before borrowing. It is impossible in the brief limits of this chapter to go into details in these matters, but recent articles on each of these points appear in the bibliography, to which those interested must refer. A few words may be said, however, as to the binding and care of the music collection. Bindings for scores which are to circulate should be as light in weight as is compatible with a fair amount of strength. It is of greater importance that the binding should be serviceable than permanently durable. A light-weight cloth is recommended, with boards of medium weight. The music should open flat on the music rack. Few libraries can afford to bind all their music, however, and for less expensive treatment cloth-covered boxes such as are used in music stores for stock will be found excellent. The scores may be sewed in manila covers, using gummed cloth in the center of every signature. As many as four signatures may be sewed into one cover in this way. This fashion will serve for music such as that for violin and piano, or for any combination of stringed and other instruments. The light weight of these covers is essential for any music to be used on the ordinary rack such as violinists use. The size and shape of music scores make it imperative to shelve them apart from the books about music, and on shelves especially built for the purpose, fixed, and with vertical divisions at frequent intervals.

The beginner is warned against adopting any printed form of classification without first making a careful study of some well-ordered collection of music within his reach. He should also try to decide as to the ultimate scope and purpose of his own collection.

A class list on cards, apart from the main card catalog, will be found essential, but the main catalog should contain the composer and title cards.

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Abstract in Library journal, 39:334-35, April, 1914.

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CONTENTS

Symposium on music in libraries.

This includes descriptions of the collections in the following twelve public libraries in the United States:

Bancroft memorial library,	Hartford, Conn.
Hopedale, Mass.	Haverhill, Mass.
Brookline, Mass.	Los Angeles, Cal.
Brooklyn, N.Y.	Morrison-Reeves library, Rich-
Evanston, Ill.	mond, Ind.
Forbes library, Northampton,	St. Louis, Mo.
Mass.	St. Paul, Minn.
Gary, Ind.	

Kinkeldey. American music catalogs.

Bowker. Music selection for public libraries.

Goldberg. Treatment of music in Chicago's new music room.

Rambler. Embossed music for the blind.

Sonneck. Music division of the Library of Congress.

Kinkeldey. The New York public library and its music division.

Duncan. Music in the Boston public library.

1916 Wigginton, M. W. A new music index. *Library journal*, 41:323-25, May, 1916.

BOOKPLATES

In America the general interest in bookplates, which began possibly less than thirty years ago, has of late increased very rapidly. While as yet comparatively few American libraries have attempted to make special collections of bookplates, it seems probable that in the future the practice will become more common, for as soon as a library feels the need of a more artistic bookplate, perhaps for valuable bequests or gifts, it naturally gathers specimens of such plates, and these are likely to attract gifts of single plates and even of considerable private collections.

The largest collection of bookplates is that in the British Museum, numbering 200,000. This includes the 70,000 plates bequeathed by Sir Augustus Wollaston Franks in 1897, and also many specimens preserved on the covers of books to which they were originally attached. Many American libraries might well begin their collections by listing the interesting plates to be found in the books already on their shelves.

Bookplates may be regarded as one phase of a print collection, where the emphasis is laid on the engraver or artist rather than on the owner; e.g., the New York Public Library has in its Art and Prints division a nearly complete set of the bookplates by E. D. French.

When a library has gathered even a few bookplates, it should adopt some uniform plan for their care and arrangement. For such a plan the following suggestions are made:

Mount bookplates singly on sheets of uniform size and color and of at least medium weight; e.g., use sheets of the

standard 8×10 inches, of cream white or some other light shade, (as light brown) on which typewriting will show clearly, and of a weight sufficient to stand in a file without bending. The heading by which the sheet is to be filed should be written at the top. Below the plate may be added explanatory notes and references to descriptions of the plate, etc.

Mount the plate a little above the center of the sheet. Use hinges of onion-skin paper about $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$ inch and attach them with a smooth paste. Never paste the plate directly on the mount, as it is often desirable to substitute a better copy.

The arrangement of bookplates depends upon the size of the collection and the object the collector has in view; e.g., they may be arranged either by owners, artists, countries, styles, periods, or special varieties—as college bookplates, children's bookplates, etc. The easiest to make and the easiest to use is an arrangement by owners, but this will probably need to be supplemented by indexes, of at least the important plates, in a variety of different groupings as noted above. If the plates are divided into special collections, an index by owners is necessary. If only a few special groups are taken out from the general "Owner" collection, sheets may be inserted in the "Owner" group referring to the special collection in which the plate may be found; in the same way references may be made for plates in bound volumes on the library shelves.

Small collections may be kept in a drawer or in pamphlet boxes, larger collections in a vertical file, separated into smaller divisions by folders and guides.

For other suggestions as to care and arrangement, see the following:

1893 Castle, Egerton. Arrangement of bookplates. (In his English bookplates. 1893. pp. 318-23.)

1896 Hamilton, Walter. Identification and classification. (In his French bookplates. 1896. pp. 21-38.)

Contains notes on the repairing and identification of bookplates.

- 1901 Blackwell, Henry. Study and arrangement of bookplates. (In Bowdoin, W. G. Rise of the bookplate. 1901. pp. 9-11.)
- Leiningen-Westerburg, K. E. graf zu. Arrangement of a collection. (In his German bookplates. 1901. pp. 493-95.)
- 1903 Dixon, Mrs. Z. A. Classification and arrangement; Some institutions and individuals making collections of bookplates. (In her Concerning bookplates. 1903. pp. 141-66, 175-201.)

The list of collections includes a note of subcollections and the general plan of arrangement.

For a comprehensive list of books about bookplates, see Winward Prescott's "Check list of bookplate literature" in H. P. Ward's "Some American college bookplates" (1915), pp. 401-57. This is a slightly enlarged edition of his "Bibliography of bookplate literature," published separately in 1914. For a briefer list, see New York public library bulletin, December, 1915, pp. 968-72.

FLORENCE WOODWORTH

MAPS

Maps and Atlases.—In every library are to be found some maps, though in the small libraries they may be practically limited to those found in atlases, cyclopedias, works of history and travel, a few wall maps, and possibly a local directory. The five common ways of map issue, as given by Mr. Drury (see bibliography), are:

- 1 Atlases—maps bound in books.
- 2 Pocket maps—folded for pocket use.
- 3 Roller maps—mounted for wall display.
- 4 Globes—pasted on revolving spheres.
- 5 Sheet maps—loose in sheet form.

For completeness we may add:

- 6 Maps forming part of a book or periodical, folded, pasted by one edge, or placed in a pocket in the cover.

Forms 1, 2, and 6 are those of books, the ordinary library material, and, therefore, if kept in the form in which they are issued, furnish no different problem as to their care. Globes are so unusual in libraries as to call for no comment. The question presented therefore resolves into this—What roller maps and sheet maps shall the library try to procure and how shall it care for them? For any given library the answer must necessarily take account of the value to that library of the various maps published, their cost, and the expense of caring for them.

Value.—The use of maps for reference work in libraries is essential in the varied fields of history and geography—political, physical, and economic—especially is the growing use of graphic representation by teachers of these subjects in schools and colleges making increased demands upon the library for the best maps and for methods that shall make them readily available. Another demand comes from the business man, traveler, or automobile owner who wants to know about the railroads, electric lines, improved highways, post-offices, natural features, or products, etc., of some section of this or another country.

Acquisition.—The classes of printed books already referred to contain a wealth of cartographic material not generally recognized. Selection of roller and sheet maps should be made with a view to supplementing these maps which are thus available and to bring them up to date. The advertising matter issued by railroads, summer resorts, insurance companies, etc., often furnishes very useful maps, which may be had for the asking and which are sometimes of high quality. Lists of (1) helps in the selection of maps, (2) inexpensive and useful general maps (many of them published by the United States government), (3) local maps of New Jersey and Newark (useful to other localities for suggestions as to the kind of material that may be obtained) are given by Miss Ball (see bibliography).

Roller Maps.—Except to a very limited extent, roller maps cannot be displayed on the walls of the library for want of room. They may, however, be placed on spring rollers, and a number of these spring rollers hung on the under side of a platform built at a suitable height so that any one of the maps so placed may be pulled down and examined without being taken to a desk or table. The Jenkins revolving rack is another practical device by which as many as 30 large maps may be fastened by their upper edges to the surface of a cylinder, and any one of them brought to view by the proper rotation of the cylinder. Small maps may be mounted together and over 150 of the U.S. topographic sheets may be placed on one of these map racks. Roller maps which cannot be displayed in either of these ways are generally kept in rolled form, numbered, and labeled with sufficient fulness for identification; they may be suspended from hooks in the ceiling or overhead platform by means of screw eyes in the ends of the sticks on which they are rolled; they may be stored in wall cases provided with racks to hold them vertically or horizontally; or they may be placed in long shallow drawers. An alternative to these methods is to eliminate roller maps entirely by cutting them into suitable sections, mounting them with sufficient space between the sections for folding, and treating them in all respects as sheet maps.

Sheet Maps.—These are much more numerous than roller maps and the great majority of them are of smaller size. Devices for handling are very numerous, but may be divided into three classes:

- 1 Folding and binding them so as to treat them as books.
- 2 Treating them as roller maps.
- 3 Filing them flat, usually with not more than a single fold—(a) vertically, or (b) horizontally.

The first method, eliminating both roller and sheet as a distinct class of library material, has been adopted by the Indiana State Library, whose procedure may be taken as typical.

The maps of "real value" are dissected to a size not less than 6×8 inches and not more than 9×11 inches, mounted, folded, and fastened into covers of muslin-covered boards. These book-maps are then plated and labeled like ordinary books and filed in pamphlet boxes, four to six in a box. Maps of less importance, comprising such groups as harbor maps, canal maps, etc., are bound flat in stencil-board covers not larger than 2×3 feet, the maps being folded when necessary and the fold guarded by a wide strip. Small maps fitting the pamphlet boxes when folded once are mounted in the library and fastened into manila covers which are covered on the back by a strip of cloth to give them a greater similarity to the book-maps.

Treating sheet maps as roller maps involves mounting them on cloth if they are to be much handled, and is desirable only where they are to be placed on spring rollers for frequent use or are to be used as wall maps.

Vertical filing has been used for sheet maps to a considerable extent. Because of the large and varying size of the individual maps there is a tendency for them to collect in a disorganized mass in the bottom of the file unless held up in some way. Pulp board, cut 27×38 inches, with the maps pasted down along the upper edge only and with vertical partitions about 6 inches apart, has proved a practical arrangement. A variation of this (perhaps better to be described as a pigeonhole arrangement) has been used by the Newark Public Library and others for series of maps of uniform size, such as the U.S. topographic sheets; these sheets, mounted on pulp board 18×22 inches, may be placed in a case with narrow compartments deep enough (front to back) and high enough to hold the pulp boards; an advantage is that several such cases may be placed one above the other, as the opening is in front instead of on top, without requiring that any heavy drawer be pulled out. For miscellaneous maps which have only temporary use large envelopes

marked with the class number only may well be used and arranged in a vertical file.

Flat filing is usually in drawers or sliding shelves; the individual map may be placed in a manila folder, or a group of maps, not to exceed 20, may be placed in such a folder. To avoid folding the maps, or to reduce such folding to the minimum, such drawers should be large enough to take all but the most unusual with but a single fold. It is well to have some drawers as large as 40×30 inches; smaller maps may be placed in two piles in a drawer of this size or we may use for the majority of our maps a drawer 30×20 inches. The greatest number of maps to be placed one above the other should not exceed 100, and this number will be materially less if each map is in a separate manila folder; the drawers should therefore be shallow and two inches outside measurement may well be taken as standard. Instead of drawers various libraries use large cloth-covered boxes, 40×30×2 inches, filed horizontally one to a shelf; the top of this box is hinged six inches from the front, with a lip coming down over the front and ends, and the front drops down when the cover is lifted. Such boxes may be filed on shelves of proper length and width, and if not more than eight shelves high, the top of the case will furnish a table for consulting the maps and save the inconvenience of carrying box or map to some other part of the library.

Classification and Cataloging.—Special series of maps, like the U.S. topographic sheets, are naturally best kept together; the particular series may be arranged (1) by states, and (2) alphabetically by the names of the quadrangles or numerically according to a scheme to be indicated on the index for the state. The general collection should be arranged according to the classification which is used for the books in the library. For the catalog of maps the subject (area mapped) is more important than author, and for most libraries the latter may well be

dispensed with in the case of most maps, or reduced to a cross-reference. A brief code of rules suitable to a moderate-sized library is given by Miss Winsor (see below). We prefer, however, to give the size of maps as height by width, thus following Cutter's Rules, no. 280 and p. 141, the Library of Congress, and the American geographical society.

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PETER NELSON

XXVII

COMMISSIONS, STATE AID, AND STATE AGENCIES

ASA WYNKOOP
New York State Library

With little if any conscious theorizing regarding the fundamental principles involved, leaders of the modern library movement have definitely taken their stand with those who believe that human betterment is to be promoted by an enlargement of the functions of government. Indeed, one might say that this belief is involved in the very idea of the public library and in all the legislation that has made it possible; for the moment provision is made by law to establish a public library and to appropriate money from general taxation for its support, something of state sovereignty has been invoked and government has assumed a new function in the interest of social welfare. Every believer in the tax-supported public library believes that it is the proper business of government to compel the individual, whatever his private disposition or will in the matter, to contribute to its support. Justification for this belief is found in the fact that if the free library is an important factor in the general well-being of a community, then it is for the community as a *community*, and not merely as an association of individuals to provide this benefit; and as its advantages accrue to the social organism as a whole and not merely to its individual members, the burden of its support should be borne by the whole community.

Such being the theory on which the public library has made its claim and established a recognized legal status, the development of state library commissions and similar state agencies for promoting and improving public libraries has been nothing less

than a logical necessity. For if it be wise and proper that the people of any village or city, by a majority vote, shall have the power to establish and maintain a library at the expense of all and for the benefit of all, it can hardly be less wise or proper that the people of the whole state should have the same power. If it is a sound political doctrine that the authority of government should be invoked in providing library privileges for the smaller social unit, that authority may certainly be invoked with at least equal justification in providing such facilities for the larger social unit. Once granted that the library is a factor of sufficient importance in social well-being to entitle it to tax support, its right to a place in the policy and economy of the state government can hardly be questioned.

But while the assumption by the state of authority and initiative in this matter has thus been a logical development of the public library idea, the moving cause in the development has not been the force of any mere logic but the recognition of some very obvious facts, among which the following have perhaps had the most weight:

1. The state spends vast sums of money to promote education through the schools. It is only through the diffusion of good books and libraries that this expenditure can secure its proper results. In the words of Dr. Richardson of Princeton, "To train a man for seven years to make shoes or machinery, and then turn him loose on the world without leather or iron, is just what the community does in education when after seven years of apprenticeship at books in order to learn how to add ideas, scholars are turned loose on the community without a public library" (*Library Journal*, 1906, p. 111).

2. Leaving the question of providing library facilities entirely to local enterprise or initiative means that a great number of communities will have no library, just as at an earlier stage in our educational development the leaving of the question of providing public school facilities entirely to local initiative

meant the utter absence of such facilities in many places. And further, it is just the places where local initiative is lacking that most need the public library.

3. The people of the whole state are vitally concerned as to the conditions that obtain in every part of the state. An enlarged stock of moral ideas or ideals in any part of the commonwealth is an enrichment for the whole state. An impoverishment of such ideas in any community makes the whole state poorer. The people of every part of the commonwealth have to bear the expense of disease, degeneracy, pauperism, and crime that may be propagated by conditions in some distant, obscure, and neglected community. If the library is a factor making for mental and moral health, then it is of concern to everybody in the state, and not merely to the people of a particular community, that there shall be a library in that community. The state, in propagating libraries, is looking after its own essential well-being.

4. The state as a whole, by its very constitution, can do many things for library development which are quite impossible for scattered communities. Obviously this is the case in the matter of suitable and helpful library laws, the most important form of aid the state can render. It is equally true of those activities which have to do with co-ordinating and correlating the work of scattered libraries whereby they may work together for the common good. So also in the matter of establishing standards and maintaining institutions for making such standards feasible, the state is the natural and obvious agent.

5. The agency of the state, where its activities are rightly directed, becomes a most effective factor in arousing and directing local interest and initiative. Instead of superseding or suppressing local responsibility, the state, through its commission or library department, has as its prime function and duty the awakening and quickening of local effort and responsibility.

But logical and obvious as these considerations may seem today, their acceptance as a state policy has been a matter of very recent years and in some states they are waiting still for official recognition. If the assumption stated above is correct, that the idea of state agency in this matter is involved in the idea of tax support for free libraries, then we may find a beginning of this movement in the legislation of New York state in 1834 when provision was made for tax support for free libraries in school districts. Massachusetts followed with a similar law in 1837 and Connecticut in 1839. An important advance step was taken in 1838 when New York again led the movement by appropriating \$55,000 from the state treasury as direct aid to district libraries, an act whose significance in modern library history can hardly be overestimated. It is to be borne in mind, however, that these acts, while making provision for a limited service to the general public, had in mind chiefly the interest of the schools and were a part rather of the general educational movement of the time than of a distinct library movement. The first state act to provide for the establishment and support by taxation of city and town libraries was that of New Hampshire in 1849. Massachusetts adopted a similar act in 1851, Maine in 1854, Vermont in 1855, Ohio and Rhode Island in 1867. Today the principle of tax support for public libraries has been all but universally adopted in the United States and in all other countries of advanced civilization.

The first state to make the definite and formal advance from the principle of tax support to that of state aid and supervision, and to embody that principle in a distinct and permanent state agency, was Massachusetts, which in 1890 created by act of legislature a state board under the name of the Massachusetts free public library commission, whose sole duty and function it was to aid the establishment and development of free libraries throughout the state. The act carried with it an appropriation whereby the commission was enabled to give \$100 worth of

books to each new free library in the state which met proper conditions in its organization and service. It is worthy of note that the state which thus took the lead in this action still leads all others in its library development. New Hampshire, which led Massachusetts by two years in its provision for a local tax for libraries, was one year later in establishing its commission. Through the influence of its commission, however, it again took, in its library legislation, a position which was at the time and still is in advance of that taken by any other state, making it compulsory for every town to levy a library tax unless such tax is specifically rescinded by popular vote. New York was the third state to join in the movement, enacting in 1832 a most comprehensive library law by which the state library was made a central bureau for promoting, stimulating, aiding, and directing local libraries. In some respects this law, with its provisions for direct aid and supervision, is still in advance of any similar legislation in other states. In 1893 Connecticut and in 1894 Vermont established commissions similar to that of Massachusetts, providing both an organized propaganda for library extension and state funds to aid in starting new libraries. It is thus apparent that the movement began distinctly as a New England idea, four of the first five states to adopt it belonging to that section of the Union. In 1895, however, the idea was taken up in a most vigorous and systematic way by Wisconsin and a free library commission was established in that state, which in its formal organization and activities has been generally taken as a model for the Middle and Western states. Ohio followed in 1896 with a law which centered the functions of the state commission in the state library, making it, as in New York, the agent of the state for general library extension and improvement. By 1897 the idea had begun to find acceptance in the South and was formally adopted by the legislature of Georgia in the creation of a library commission, but the act was evidently regarded as only a tentative proposition, as no

money was made available to equip the commission for its work. 1899 was a red-letter year in the history of the movement, no less than eight states creating free library commissions, thus doubling the number of states to incorporate in their government the policy of library extension and supervision. These states were Maine, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Indiana, Minnesota, Kansas, and Colorado, all putting the work into the hands of especially created commissions, though in two of these states, Maine and Michigan, some of the more important functions of state aid were definitely assigned to the state library. In 1900 Iowa joined in the movement; in 1901, Washington, Nebraska, Maryland, Idaho, and Delaware. In 1903 California put into operation a plan modeled very largely after that of New York, making the state library the center of all activities for library development in the state, a plan which has since been greatly modified by the establishment of the county library system. Colorado, not content with a single state agency to represent the library cause, created in 1903 a second state commission whose function should be exclusively the maintenance of a system of traveling libraries. In 1905 Oregon came conspicuously to the front in this movement, creating a commission with unusual power and authority and enacting a library law which has often been cited as a model. In 1906 the legislature of Virginia conferred some of the powers of a library commission on the state library; in 1907 Alabama enlarged the function of the state department of archives and history, and Rhode Island that of the state board of education by creating standing committees for the promotion and supervision of free libraries. The same year independent free library commissions were established in North Dakota and Missouri, and in 1909 in Illinois, Tennessee, and North Carolina. Utah followed by the establishment of a state library-gymnasium commission, and Texas by a library and historical commission. The last commission created up to the

time of this writing was that of Kentucky, which was established by the legislature in 1910 and began active work in 1911. In three other states, Arkansas, Montana, and Oklahoma, strong efforts are now being made by library associations to secure the establishment of commissions by the legislatures now in session, and it is more than likely that one, if not all these efforts will succeed. To complete this brief historical sketch, mention should be made of the movement entirely analogous to this in the Province of Ontario, where as early as 1868 governmental grants were made to libraries of mechanics' institutes. In 1880 the control of these libraries was formally vested in the department of education and they were brought under governmental inspection. In 1895 an act was passed making specific provision for "public libraries," granting them annual state aid to the maximum of \$200. In 1909 a general library law for the province was passed under which governmental aid, supervision, and authority go beyond anything thus far attempted in the United States.

It is thus seen that in the brief space of 22 years at least 35 states representing seven-eighths of the population of the United States, together with a province of Canada, have adopted both the principle of state aid and supervision for public libraries and created appropriate state agencies for carrying on that work, giving the library a definite place in the economy of government as "an integral part of the system of public education."

In the application of the principle, however, there is the widest possible divergency among the several states. In some the principle receives a recognition which is hardly more than formal and complimentary, in others it is put into operation with very inadequate facilities, while in others it is developed and carried out to its logical conclusions with a thoroughness and detail hardly exceeded by the department of schools. The scope of this article forbids any detailed description of what the different states are doing or how their library departments

are organized. For such details readers are referred to the Handbook of the League of Library Commissions, which has recently been brought up to date. The aim here is to take a general survey of the whole field of commission work and to indicate in the broadest way the various activities which the state has assumed in this connection. From such a survey it may be seen that the state, through its library department, has assumed at least the following ten general functions:

1. *The establishing of local libraries.*—In the performance of this function the commission is called upon to maintain a great variety of activities. It must first make a careful study of the library law of the state, outline and urge amendments where needed, and put such provisions of the law as are pertinent and vital in such form and language as will be easily understood and give it the widest possible publicity. It must make a careful survey of the field to be covered and have all the facts bearing on its particular problem carefully tabulated and easily available. By correspondence, circulars, personal visits, it stimulates, initiates, organizes, or assists local movements for a new library. It sends its organizers to outline plans for a library campaign, to hold conferences with public officials, to organize conferences and public gatherings, and to set forth in informal or formal addresses the best ideas, ideals, and methods of the modern library movement. In a few states it furnishes an additional incentive by offering to the community as a direct grant from the state treasury an initial sum for new books. It assures the new enterprise, fearful of its ability to stand alone, the continuance of aid and support, either by a steady supply of traveling libraries, by grants from the state treasury, or by personal service and attention, or by all of such forms of aid. Where its work is fully developed, it maintains free for circulation a library bulletin whereby stimulating and informing library literature shall be regularly and systematically distributed among those whose influence or interest in the matter is

particularly desired. And finally, it maintains a general headquarters of information available for everyone whose thoughts or interests may be directed to the question of starting, assisting, or endowing a library. In its work for the establishment of libraries, the commission occupies a position analogous to that of a church extension board or a board of home missions and thus far has shown a notable degree of the spirit and zeal which such boards are supposed to possess.

2. *Aiding and improving local libraries.*—The first thought regarding the commission is often limited to its function as an agency of library extension, but this is only the beginning of its real and permanent work and a service which would perhaps be of doubtful value if its work ended there. In the great majority of cases, where the commission's service is needed at all, it is needed as a continuous help and stimulus to the local enterprise, and most of the more developed commissions today are devoting a great part of their resources and efforts to this service. In one state or another the following direct forms of assistance and supervision are provided by the state: (a) The formulation and establishment of library standards on the basis of which state recognition and certain forms of aid are to be given; (b) annual grants for approved books; (c) the personal services of an expert library organizer to introduce best methods and tools; (d) printed aids in book selection and the personal help of the commission to this same end where desired; (e) the sending to local libraries of individual books when needed, collections of books for extended periods, or collections of the best printed library aids; (f) the providing of plans and suggestions for new library buildings or for remodeling old ones; (g) the providing of aid and advantages in book-buying by securing favorable terms and suitable bindings; (h) aids in the matter of selecting, securing, and utilizing various kinds of free materials, such as government, state, institutional, and corporation publications; (i) the rendering of direct aid in securing better

support by taxation or otherwise; (j) services in the matter of securing proper librarian; (k) by argument, example, persuasion, and the presentation of high ideals, aid in transforming old subscription libraries into free public libraries; (l) the giving of special attention to dead or moribund libraries, ascertaining the cause of their decline and weakness, and applying all possible remedies within its resource.

3. *Promoting helpful co-operation between libraries.*—Libraries often fail of their true efficiency, not because of any specific defects in their individual work or organization, but because they are working in isolation from others, and are wasting in unnecessary duplication, resources and energy which should be available for other ends. It is for the central state agency, which is able to see things as a whole, to point out where unnecessary duplication is causing waste and inefficiency, to provide the appropriate remedy, and to bring about proper co-ordination and co-operation. In this field the commissions have as yet hardly begun to realize their full possibilities, but they have accomplished much and have proposed programs and plans for vastly more. Among the things definitely accomplished in one or more states are: (a) the establishment of a central periodical exchange; (b) the interchangeable use by different libraries of each other's lists, bibliographies, picture bulletins, etc.; (c) the maintenance of local library institutes or round tables for regular interchange of ideas and experiences; (d) the maintenance of some degree of unity and co-operation between the public library system and that of the school library. Plans for co-operation which have been put on paper and recommended but which have not yet been put into operation to any important extent are: co-operative and centralized system of book-buying; the maintenance of a general book exchange; a system of specialization between neighboring libraries whereby each shall develop special collections to be available for all through a system of inter-library loans and a common catalog;

and the joint employment by groups of libraries of a general superintendent for the whole group. The promotion of each of these objects is easily within the proper scope and power of the commissions, and they will doubtless receive attention with the further development of the work.

4. *Raising the standard and quality of librery service*.—One of the most vital and influential factors in the present library movement is the idea on which it has from the first placed supreme emphasis, that for a good library there must be a trained and efficient librarian, that to build up an effective library system either for a single community or for a state requires first of all a trained and disciplined force to operate such a system. Hence it has been one of the first tasks of the state commissions to provide ways and means for securing such service. The following are methods now in operation by which various commissions are solving this problem: (a) by regular schools of library science, analogous in design and course of teaching to the state normal schools for teachers; (b) by means of summer schools where brief elementary courses in library economy are given to librarians whose duties are simple and whose libraries are small; (c) where no school is maintained by the commission, provision is made by one state at least (Massachusetts) to pay part of expenses of summer school course for a limited number of promising librarians; (d) by providing a minimum standard of qualification for service in public libraries. Tentative steps only have as yet been taken in this matter, but the principle has been established in at least three states, Ohio, California, and New York; (e) by stimulating and aiding the development of local library clubs and the growth of all library associations, thus promoting the development of a professional spirit among library workers; (f) by individual instruction and training of local workers by expert organizers whose extended visits and organizing work have as their main end this training and instruction; (g) by keeping

constantly to the front in all spoken or printed utterances high ideals for library service, and pressing the matter of better salaries for such service in all proper and dignified ways.

5. *Providing aid to schools and to school libraries.*—The relation of the library department of the state to its school department is one on which there appears as yet to be no settled agreement, and it varies greatly in different states. In some, the library department is a division of and subordinate to the school department, in others the two departments are co-ordinate; in still others, divisions of work which are quite generally recognized as belonging clearly to the department of education have been definitely placed under the supervision of the state library commission. But whatever the formal relation, the schools are uniformly recognized by the commissions as an important part of the public and as entitled to such service from them as they are peculiarly fitted to render. In this relation the following are the more important lines of commission work: (a) supplying the schools with traveling libraries; (b) assisting the schools in the selection, classification, and use of books by means of graded, classified, and cataloged lists; (c) providing a central reference collection and information bureau for the use of the schools; (d) providing outlines, references, and traveling collections of material for use in school debates; (e) promoting and assisting library training in normal schools for teachers and teacher librarians; (f) establishing and maintaining standards of qualification for heads of school libraries; (g) distributing library aids and good library literature to the schools; (h) promoting systematic training of school children in the use of books and libraries.

6. *Aid to libraries in state charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions.*—For several years the commissions were so absorbed in other activities that little attention was given to the needs and claims of that unfortunate part of the population which, for its own or for the public good, has been shut away

from the common life of the community and confined in various state institutions. Lately, however, there has been a marked awakening of interest in this phase of library work in all parts of the country, and some notable advances have been made in the equipment, organization, and administration of institutional libraries through the initiative and supervision of state library commissions. In some states the movement instituted by the commissions for improved conditions in these libraries has gone so far as to bring about the appointment of a trained library supervisor to have general charge and direction of all the institutional libraries of the state. In some others the commission has designated one of its own staff to give his or her entire attention to this field. The general attitude and aim of the commissions in this matter may be seen in a circular recently sent by the commission of one of the central states to all the institutions within its bounds, in which the following service to each is offered: the providing regularly, without cost, of the A.L.A. Booklist; the sending on request of lists of approved books on topics of special interest or lists of stories for reading aloud; the giving of advice on editions and binding or on mending and repair of books; assistance in planning arrangement of rooms, furniture, or shelving; assistance in classifying or cataloging the library; the teaching of the librarian, if untrained, how to carry on the work in the most simple and effective way; the giving of help and advice, if desired, by a personal visit of the secretary of the commission.

7. *Providing library facilities where no local library exists or can be maintained.*—With the facilities, resources, and liberal provisions of law now to be found in most of the states having commissions, there is no reason, save ignorance or indifference, why even the smallest and poorest groups of the population should not enjoy the privilege of good books. For such groups the state commissions or library departments are providing in the following ways: (a) by traveling libraries sent direct

from the commission or state library, on petition of a certain number of taxpayers and on the condition that the books are to be entirely free to all in the community. A small fee is usually charged to cover cost of transportation, but in one or two states a limited number of books are supplied without any fee whatever; (b) by encouraging and aiding the establishment of town and county systems whereby a strong central library shall be free to the whole town or county, maintaining deposit stations or branches wherever there is any considerable group of readers; (c) by bringing about mutual agreements and contracts between communities or districts devoid of libraries with near-by village or city library systems whereby the privileges of the latter shall be extended to the former on consideration of a small payment; (d) by what is known as the system of "house libraries" or "home libraries" whereby small collections of books are sent for three months direct to the homes of readers, whose needs, responsibility, and serious purpose are duly authenticated and where a small fee is paid for transportation; (e) by providing, where they have the necessary authority, and encouraging in other cases, liberal rules in the administration of school libraries whereby all the people of the school district shall have such free use of those libraries as is consistent with the prior claims of the schools.

8. *Selecting and distributing public documents.*—Much still remains to be done before the commissions fulfil the measure of service which logically belongs to them in selecting and evaluating state and United States government documents and supplying them to local scattered libraries. For such a service there are needed in most states decided changes in the laws and enlarged appropriations and equipment for the commissions; but even under present limitations they are doing something to aid in this difficult matter. Thus, in their bulletins, their field work, their summer schools, institutes, and other meetings, they call continuous attention to the great body of valuable

material that is available at little or no expense to libraries in state and federal publications. They have had prepared and have widely distributed among libraries printed aids for the selection and use of such material. In some states they directly distribute, in all they recommend the monthly lists issued at Washington of federal and state publications. Occasionally, lists of valuable material on special subjects of interest, published by governmental agencies and supplied free or at a nominal cost to libraries, are compiled by one commission and used for free distribution by all the others. In one state a quarterly annotated list of recent documents issued by that state, of special value to the small library, is regularly prepared by an expert and given to libraries through the quarterly library bulletin. In some of the states the commission, in a larger number the state library, has been made the general headquarters where all or a majority of the state publications may be secured by local libraries. A further development in this direction which has been suggested and urged and which may be worked out in the near future is the establishment of a central clearing-house or exchange for all available and desirable federal, state, municipal, institutional, and corporate publications.

9. *Library for the blind*.—In three states, Alabama, California, and New York, a distinct library for the blind, supplied with books printed in raised letters, has been established as a department of the state library or commission, and an active propaganda is maintained for the free circulation and use of these books. In other states the commission is the active agent through which other important institutional or governmental libraries for the blind are brought to the attention and service of the blind people of the state.

10. *Legislative reference work*.—No department of library work has excited more interest or received more commendation during the present decade than that commonly known as legis-

lative reference work. This is partly due to a clear recognition of the importance and advantage to the states of the aid thus rendered toward wise legislation, and partly to the fact that this work lies so close to the body which makes the appropriations. The work in its theory and purpose is as old as parliamentary government. It is the work for which governmental and state libraries were primarily founded. The thing that is new or modern and that has made the work itself assume the proportion of a new movement is simply the application of modern advanced library ideas and methods to this particular field, the last to be thus developed. Logically then the work belongs rather to the state library, using that term in its older and narrower sense, than to the public library commission or department of free libraries; but in many states, particularly those establishing library commissions since the idea of legislative reference has been so popular and those in which the commissions have been noted for their initiative and efficiency, the legislatures have definitely put this work in charge of the commissions. The determining factor in the arrangement has evidently been the question of expediency or efficiency rather than of logical consistency. At any rate, legislative reference has now become a definite and important function, in the minds of some the most important function of the state library commissions.

WHAT STATE AGENCIES HAVE ACCOMPLISHED FOR LIBRARY EXTENSION

It would be assuming altogether too much to attribute to state library commissions or other central agencies for library extension the full credit, or perhaps the greater credit, for the library expansion and development that have taken place in the different states since such agencies were established. The present is distinctively a library age and the public library idea is making its way in all parts of the world regardless of state and governmental agencies. Every advance in general education, in

science, in liberal ideas, in public intelligence and well being is an aid to library development, and the library commissions themselves are products of these social forces. But the briefest possible survey of the history and work of the commissions in different states is sufficient to demonstrate beyond question their direct and positive contribution toward library extension during the last twenty years. Thus, in Massachusetts, when the free public library commission was established in 1890, there were 105 towns without free library privileges. After ten years of work by the commission there were but seven towns without such privileges and today there is a free library for the people of every one of its 352 towns. In New York, when the present system of state aid and supervision was put into effect, there were in the state, including school libraries free for circulation, 238 free libraries, having a total of 850,000 volumes and an annual circulation of 2,293,000 volumes. Five years later there were 408 free libraries with a total stock of 1,755,000 volumes and a circulation of 6,439,000—an increase of 80 per cent in the number of libraries, 100 per cent increase in the stock of books, and 200 per cent increase in the circulation. In five years, more was done under the new act for the development of free libraries than in the whole previous history of the state. The Connecticut commission was established in 1893. The state had at that time 43 free libraries. After five years of commission work the number had grown to 84. In Vermont the commission was established in 1894, there being at that time 41 free libraries in the state. By 1899 the number had increased to 124, a threefold multiplication of free library centers during five years of commission activity. Wisconsin established its library commission in 1895 when there were 33 free libraries in operation in the state. Four years later the number had increased to 77, and today there are 156 such libraries in operation, nearly five times as many as at the time the commission was created. In Ohio during the first twelve

years of commission work the number of free libraries having 5,000 volumes or over increased from 22 to 56. In New Jersey there was an increase from 47 to 99 in free libraries during the first five years of the commission and an increase from 1,604,644 to 5,889,000 in free library circulation during this period. In Indiana there were at the time the commission was created 57 free libraries. Five years later there were in operation 91 free libraries. During this period the number of library buildings in the state increased from 6 to 61. Minnesota reported in 1899, when its library commission was established, 34 public libraries and 5 library buildings. In 1904 its report showed 70 public libraries and 34 library buildings, and today it has 116 public libraries and 60 library buildings. Iowa, whose library commission began work in 1900, has during the twelve years of its commission's work increased the number of its public libraries from 41 to 113 and its public library buildings from 5 to 98. In Nebraska, where a state library commission was established in 1901, free libraries increased in number during the first five years of commission work from 26 to 55, and now number 86.

These particular states are cited, merely because statistics bearing on just these points are easily available, and not because results in them have been at all exceptional. Taking these states together, there has been, since state library commissions or departments were established in them—a period averaging less than 16 years—an increase from about 875 to about 2,520 free libraries. Thus during this brief period of commission work, nearly three times as many libraries have been put in operation in these states as in all their previous history.

It should further be noted that of the 5,640 libraries of 1,000 volumes or more in the United States, reported by the U.S. Bureau of Education in 1908, 5,388 are in the 35 states which have state agencies for library development and only 252 are in the other 13 states. The states having no library commissions, while having 11,892,319 population, or more than

one-eighth of that of the whole country, have only one-twentieth of the libraries. Massachusetts alone, with a population only one-third as great as that of the states without library commissions, has twice as many libraries as those states combined.

In the face of such facts there is hardly need of stating the conclusion that state initiative and the various forms of aid represented in the work of the commissions have been a most influential factor in bringing about present library conditions in the United States. Where no direct state agency has been established for this work, the library is still in a primitive state of development.

LIMITATIONS AND POSSIBLE DANGERS IN COMMISSION WORK

The organized central agency for a library propaganda has, however, certain natural limits and dangers, a disregard for which has sometimes minimized if it has not neutralized some of the benefits of the work. In the first place, there is danger of disregarding the particular conditions and special needs to be met in the different states. Each state has an educational, social, intellectual, and economic history of its own, and in each the central library department and the organization of its activities should obviously be an outgrowth of this history. A state with long traditions of culture, and where local initiative and private benefactions have already provided a liberal supply of library facilities, naturally calls for a very different kind and degree of state aid from one where everything is new and plastic and unformed. So a population which is stationary or declining in numbers or wealth and from which the more virile elements are constantly drawn by the greater opportunities of growing cities or new states, presents a problem totally different from that of a population rapidly increasing in numbers and wealth and possessing the hope, vigor, and initiative natural to such communities.

Then there is the danger, always inherent in any state agency, of producing artificial results, suppressing local initiative, and bringing about a mechanical uniformity. It is no great achievement for the state to provide or establish local libraries. If this were its sole object in this matter, it could by its own authority and resources quickly provide that every hamlet within its bounds should have a library. All that is needed for this is a compulsory law or a sufficient state bounty; but no state would be proud of results thus attained. The problem of the state library commission or department is not merely library development, but such development with the least possible effort, initiative, or bounty on the part of the state and the greatest possible effort, initiative, or bounty by the individual community. The state can easily do too much—it is in constant danger of doing too much, both in the stimulus and direct aid it offers for the establishment of local libraries and the bounty and regulation it supplies to libraries already established. The question what not to do is quite as important as the question what to do.

And this suggests the further consideration that the proper work of state agencies in the matter of library extension is always limited by their own success. A main object of this centralized work is to make the work unnecessary, and to continue it beyond that limit is to work injury rather than benefit. If the commission is truly successful in establishing and developing local libraries, it will gradually see these libraries assuming more and more responsibility, not only for their own work and development but for their neighboring communities; and thus whole sections of the state which began their library history by complete dependence on state aid and initiative are brought one by one to the attainment of a local autonomy and independence. From every state examples of such progress may be cited, and it is in just such developments that commission workers may find the best justification for their work.

It is in recognition of this that they are now bending their

efforts so generally and so largely to the movement which has lately assumed such large proportions in several states, for township and county library systems. For every extension by a local library, of its field or activity, there is a corresponding release of responsibility, resource, and effort, on the part of the state, and the ideal of library extension will be attained when the whole field is thus covered and provided with proper library facilities by local effort.

The most striking example of this process of transferring from the state to its local divisions the responsibility for library extension is now seen in California, which only a few years ago was noted for its centralized activities. With the adoption of its system of county libraries and the rapid expansion of that system, the state has largely ceased its direct effort in behalf of local communities or libraries and is devoting its main efforts to promoting and assisting the county library systems. Even its traveling library department, which once was famous as the only one in the country to be supplied to all communities directly and entirely at state expense, is now being used almost entirely in supplementing the county library in its work. County responsibility for library extension has thus been substituted, in theory at least, for state responsibility, and the state department of free libraries is bending its main energy to making this theory a fact.

What then of the future of the state library commissions? Are they to be regarded as mere temporary makeshifts whose very success is to render them superfluous? So it has sometimes been asserted, but this assumption ignores all but a single function of commissions, that of territorial expansion of library facilities. The time may come when the state will no longer need to promote new libraries or to send its traveling libraries to districts that have no libraries of their own; but as will be seen by referring to the outline already given of the normal functions of a library commission, the matter of mere territorial expansion

is but one of its many functions and perhaps not the most important. To whatever degree of development the individual libraries of a state may attain, there will always be need of a central agency to bring and to hold these libraries into a working system, to serve as headquarters for information and suggestion, to prevent unnecessary duplication, to maintain standards and professional schools where such standards may be realized, and in general to provide such co-ordination and co-operation as are ever needed for the best economy and efficiency. And even in the matter of library extension, success in covering the whole field of a state will only give another direction and emphasis to the work, it will not bring it to an end; for as Mr. Dudgeon of Wisconsin has so effectively pointed out, there is an intensive as well as an extensive work to be done in library extension, and to this there is no limit, save in the resources of the commission.

A word remains to be said as to the mutual relations which these various agencies of the state have established among themselves and the co-operative work they have undertaken. The separate commissions had not gone far in their work for their several states before they found that they had many common needs and problems and that each could profit greatly from the ideas and labors of the others. For each commission to work alone was seen to be as wasteful of money and effort and as illogical as for individual libraries to ignore the work of others. The advantages of co-operation were especially apparent in the matter of published library helps, selection of books, and the issue of helpful and stimulating library literature. Consideration of these advantages led the neighboring commissions of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, as early as 1901, to a tentative plan of co-operation in the issue of their publications. The working of the plan proved so satisfactory and the advantage of an extension of it to include all the commissions became so apparent that in 1904, at the World's Fair Conference of the

American Library Association at St. Louis, a special meeting was held of representatives of all the library commissions in attendance at that conference, at which a resolution was unanimously adopted to form a national organization to be known as the League of Library Commissions, the specific objects of which should be "to promote by co-operation such library interests as are within the province of library supervision by the state." Such an organization was immediately effected, a constitution and by-laws adopted, and the commissions or library departments of ten states were enrolled in membership. Since that date 17 other state commissions have formally joined the League, and it now represents practically all of the states in which commission work has reached any advanced degree of development. It is affiliated with the American Library Association and holds its annual meetings in connection with the meetings of that body. The League has a large number of helpful and widely used publications to its credit, many of which now appear under the imprint of the A.L.A. Publishing Board. Its influence in promoting harmony, economy, and efficiency among the commissions has been most beneficial and effective. In its organization and design it is much like the recently formed council or assembly of state governors, having no legal status or authority, but accomplishing its objects by the weight of its suggestions or recommendations.

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LIBRARY WORK WITH CHILDREN

FRANCES JENKINS OLCOTT

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Relation of library work with children to general education
 Essentials of library work with children
 Value of organization of children's department and of expert supervision
 Field of work
 Relation to adult departments
 Book selection for children
 The children's reading-room
 Hygiene and equipment of the children's room
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 Loan rules
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 Co-operation with the home
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 How to plan and equip a children's reading-room
 Bibliography

Relation of library work with children to general education.

—Like the public school, the public library is passing through successive stages of evolution. At first emphasis was laid on the scholarly library, and pay-libraries, privately controlled for the fortunate few. But now-a-days, responding to the call of democracy for the education of the masses, the public library is rapidly taking its place as an indispensable factor in universal education, subject to public control and supported by public money. And, like the modern school system, the public library bases its work upon the early education of children; for the vitality and far-reaching effects of the library's work with adults depend upon the literary foundations that have been laid during the formative period of childhood. Some

fortunate children receive such literary training at home; but the greater number look for this cultural influence to the school and the library. But since the school touches only a few years of the life of the average child the burden of this literary training devolves upon the public library.

Recent United States school statistics show that 93 out of every 100 children never get beyond the elementary schools. The majority of these boys and girls go out into life unequipped; in most cases they go to exhausting physical drudgery or petty clerical duties, and to sordid living conditions. Unless the library steps into the lives of these young people they are likely to forget what they learned at school and they cease to read; or possibly they are lured into unwholesome or degrading reading. The library, however, may continue the work of the elementary schools, and become a vital factor in the lives of the growing boys and girls, and, having accustomed them to its aid, it may continue to minister to them throughout their lives. This may be accomplished if, from a very early age, while still in the lower grades of school, the children have been given the "library habit," and have been allowed the free use of good books, and if their attention has been drawn through pleasurable means to standard literature and other solid reading. This then is the *raison d'être* of library work with children.

The problem of reaching all the children of a community is so large a subject that in a single chapter it is possible only to touch upon the fundamentals of the work and on some of the essential details. The librarian is referred for further study to the appended bibliography. Unfortunately the subject is so new that important phases have not been adequately treated by librarians, but the close relations of library and school make it possible for librarians to utilize the valuable results of the experiments of school experts. Especially helpful reading are Dutton and Snedden, "Administration of public education in the United States," and Chancellor, "City schools."

The problem of the small library is simpler and less formal than that of the city library, but the fundamental principles of the work are the same. The discussion of library work with children is presented here in its more developed phase, and the librarian of the small library may adapt its workings to the needs of her community.

Essentials of library work with children.—Summing up the essentials for effective work they are as follows: organization, supervised by a specialist under the direction of the head librarian; educational standards of book selection; a sufficient number of volumes; direct and effective methods of drawing attention to good books; hygienic, serviceable, and refined equipment; excellent discipline; reasonable but unrestrictive loan rules; co-operation with homes; co-operation with public schools; co-operation with other institutions employing or working with children; and last, but not least, trained children's librarians.

Value of organization of children's department and of expert supervision.—Comprehensive and effective library work, reaching all children of a community, must, like all other educative work, be based on sound and practical doctrine. It should not only have a definite object in view, but it should be compactly systematized and centrally controlled. A well-organized children's department, under the direction of a specialist of executive ability, upheld by the policies and general direction of a head librarian who is an educator, will make its force felt in every part of its city or town. Centralized supervision produces uniform standards of book selection, consistent methods, and *esprit de corps* of assistants: and thus enables the children's department to throw out powerful lines of concentrated influence, which cannot fail to affect the life of its community. Unsupervised, disjointed organization, or no organization at all, means weakness, no correlation of methods, working at cross-purposes on the part of assistants, waste of public funds, loss of public respect, and inefficient work with the children.

Field of work.—The aim of the children's department is to reach every child in its city or town. To reach them all it must work not merely through its library buildings, but through homes and institutions dealing with children. Therefore the children's library is co-operative, not independent. It becomes the public reservoir of books from which parents, educators, and social workers draw books and ideas which strengthen and deepen their own work with or for children. The department thus becomes an integral part of the elementary educational system.

Its primary function, however, is that of feeder to the adult departments of circulation and technology and general reference, and the bulk of its efforts should be directed toward focusing the children's attention upon the library as a present and future source of reading and help.

Relation to adult departments.—All methods worked out in the children's department should correlate with those of the adult departments. The children should be trained to a love of reading, and to a knowledge of classic and standard literature suitable to their years; their powers of discrimination should be developed; they should be encouraged to read along special lines; they should be taught the use of library tools, such as indexes, catalogs, and simple reference books; they should be accustomed to library rules, especially those governing the loan of books. Boys and girls who have been so trained, when they begin to use the adult departments, will do so with ease, pleasure, and self-helpfulness. Whatever effective work the children's department may do, in any part of its city or town, trains future readers and lays the foundation of the progressive work of the adult departments.

Book selection for children.—It is not possible here to go into the details of book selection for children, but a few general principles may be stated. Community interests must be studied, the census taken of the local schools, social conditions

considered, and the book selection adapted to racial tastes, the school curriculum, and to any other special demands. Throughout the selection a high but practical standard should be maintained. The ethical tone of the books should be excellent, subject-matter treated in interesting, accurate fashion, and literary style good. The books, as far as funds permit, should be attractively bound and illustrated. Good, popular books should be generously duplicated. Classics and standards should have particularly attractive covers and illustrations, so that they may successfully compete with the gaudily dressed modern "juveniles." Textbook covers should be avoided. Books should not be bought that are printed on spongy paper, which readily absorbs dust and germs; nor should those be purchased that are printed in weak or small type. All such injure the health, especially the eyes.

A child is capable of enjoying much fine literature if it falls in his way. Nothing so stunts his mind as feeding solely on "juveniles," when he is ready for stronger meat. He becomes ready by browsing in a library where he finds many tempting adult books scattered among his "juveniles." For this reason the best of suitable classics, standard novels, volumes of history, biography, science, travel, and art should be shelved in the children's room—scattered among the other books, not shelved separately. Thus he should be encouraged to read adult books, especially romantic and other imaginative works. As soon as he is old enough and desires to use the adult open shelves, he should be allowed to do so, if he does not disturb the other readers.

The formal transfer from adult to juvenile card should not take place until the boy or girl is sixteen years of age, the period considered by child-experts to be that of the awakening sense of moral responsibility. It is a salutary thing for the giggling girl and the incorrigible lad to know that they will be sent into the children's room in case they misbehave.

Only libraries having unlimited incomes can afford to equip and supervise a separate intermediate department, which calls for a special departmental organization and very large duplication of both adult and juvenile books. Even if an intermediate department is possible, from the money side, it is questionable if such telling work could be done through this separate department as through the united efforts of the adult and children's departments. Duplication of some adult books in the children's room prepares the boys and girls for more advanced reading. A special assistant adapted for work with young people may be detailed by the adult circulation department to look after the boys and girls using the adult open shelves. She may work a few hours a week in the children's room and thus become acquainted with the older children. In the adult open-shelf room attractive volumes may be set aside for the young people. Such co-operation between the two departments may be productive of large results.

The children's reading-room.—The heart from which radiates the *esprit de corps* of the children's department, that which holds together the various library agencies dealing with children, is the children's room, or the central children's room if there is a system of rooms and other book-distributing agencies. Here is the office, or offices, for the administration of the department. Here new books are selected and tested, here are devised methods leading to better reading, here assistants are trained to carry out the methods, and from this center emanates the systematizing supervision which controls the department and moulds its activities to the elementary educational requirements of its community.

Hygiene and equipment of the children's room.—The library, like the school, undertakes to be responsible to the public for care of the children during certain periods of the day. This responsibility covers not only the carrying out of its literary function, but also the physical care of the children. If the

library places its child-readers in unsanitary surroundings, it injures public health, and should be held as severely responsible as is the public school when that institution fails to provide sanitary quarters.

Serious injury may be brought about by bad air, crowded rooms, poor lighting, wrongly constructed furniture, hurtful type, soiled or unfumigated books, lack of hand-washing facilities, and dearth of pure drinking-water. Common towels and common drinking-cups are disease carriers. All these questions should be taken into consideration when planning and stocking a children's room.

There are many children's rooms which are hot-beds of germ-culture. For example: one room in a branch library, serving a densely crowded district of foreigners, was planned to seat 80 children, although the local school registration ran into the thousands. The room had narrow aisles, bad ventilation, poor light; and on a busy day 900 or more children, within a few hours, pushed their way over a noisy stone floor. At times the room was so crowded with unwashed children that the attendants could scarcely press through to the shelves. The conditions were reported to the authorities, but little was done to remedy them, although this room was a menace to the health of the neighborhood.

It is a frequent thing to see in libraries children seated in chairs so high for the tables that the average child leaning on the table has his shoulders thrust up. Chair seats are made so deep that when the children lean back they sit on their spines, and thus read for hours, with cross-lights or brilliant electric rays falling on their eyes. Such conditions would not be tolerated in a well-managed public school.

If the library is to be of the greatest benefit to the public, and not a menace to health, it must look closely to these matters, and adapt to library buildings the results of experiments in school hygiene. On page 22 of this chapter may be found

suggestions for planning and equipping a children's room. These suggestions are based not only on the present writer's personal experimentation, but on her observation of children's rooms throughout the United States, and also on some study of school hygiene.

Administration of the children's room.—The successful administration of the children's room depends largely upon the initial planning and equipping, and upon enough assistance, clerical help, the kind of discipline maintained, and on a sufficient stock of well-selected, clean books. Service is also facilitated by ample floor space, conveniently placed tables and desks, low shelves from which the children may help themselves, and necessary drawers and cupboards for storage. Problems of discipline are materially reduced by provision of large enough floor space, noiseless floor-coverings, rubber tips on chair-legs, round tables, and by the avoidance of all out-of-the-way places where children may congregate, such as high floor-stacks, cozy corners, screened-off washstands and cupboards. Plenty of fresh air, no draughts, an even, cool temperature—not exceeding 70 degrees Fahrenheit—do away with much restlessness of children and with nervousness or exhaustion of attendants. Decoration which is beautiful and dignified has a soothing mental effect on children and assistants.

To do her best work the children's librarian should not be confined to the desk, nor should her strength be exhausted in lifting and placing books on the shelves, nor should much of her time be spent mending books. It is not good economy of money or service so to expend the energy and time of a trained assistant if there is a sufficient amount of this fatiguing work to employ the time of a page.

The first requisite of a successful children's librarian is power to keep order, and at the same time to do good personal work with children. It goes without saying that where there is no order there can be no telling personal work. Instead confusion

reigns, and the assistant is kept busy reproving the boys and girls. Desirable order produces an atmosphere of pleasant feeling, accompanied by such quiet as it is possible to maintain among many growing, restless children. Such order is not brought about by watchful severity that arouses antagonism, but by tact and by knowledge of the best methods of discipline, and last but not least, by keeping the air of the room pure and fresh.

In creating the moral and mental atmosphere of the children's room, much depends upon the personality of the children's librarian. If she has good health, a wholesome point of view, is unsentimental, is firm and just, and has a wide knowledge of children's interests and books, together with a sense of humor that will aid her to discriminate between good-natured mischief and deliberate malice, then she will gain and hold the children's respect, and have little call for rigorous discipline. If on the other hand she is gushing, restless, nervous, irritable, and argues and scolds, threatens and does nothing, she will soon have her room in a turmoil, and the youngsters will devise all known means of torture that may be inflicted on an unpopular librarian or teacher. Every children's librarian knows that for the first few days in a new children's room, the children test her in order to see how much she will stand. If she gains the upper hand by ways the children respect, she may with very little trouble proceed to do much fine personal work.

An arrangement that will greatly simplify personal work is to place upon separate shelves, near the little children's tables, all easy books, fairy tales, and picture books; otherwise the little children wander about the room pulling from the shelves many books in their search for pictures and simple reading. If the books for the little folks are thus segregated in a part of the room that may be kept under observation, the small children look after their own book selection, while the children's librarian turns her attention to the older boys and girls.

Loan rules.—As far as possible these should be the same as those used in the adult circulation department, for which the children are in training. Some differences have to be made, however, to meet the requirements of minors. Librarians making experiments with registration of children, especially those of ignorant or foreign-born parents, have found that to require a guarantor for each child is to shut off from library privileges the children of the worst homes—the very children who most need the influence of good books. Much the same situation results from requiring the parent's signature on the child's application blank. A simple method, which has worked well, is to send the child's application to his teacher to be verified and checked by his school record, no responsibility resting on the teacher for the child's misuse of books. In case the library chooses to consult the parent's wishes, a circular letter may be sent to the father or mother stating that the child has been given a card, and inclosing the library rules; this gives the parent the opportunity, if so desired, to withdraw the child's application. This notification of parents has not been found necessary where the simple method of registration has been used. In working with foreigners the letter awes the ignorant to such an extent that they do not let their children get books from the library for fear of falling into the mysterious clutches of the law.

When children register they should not be called on to make sentimental promises to the library. Such promises are worse than none, as it is impossible for the children to keep them, and boys and girls are thus taught lightly to make and break public promises.

A child, as a rule, has no income of his own and very little sense of time. Many parents, especially poor ones, refuse to pay their children's fines. This means that in the course of a few years, the large children's department, having stringent rules, piles up an enormous number of children's cards held for fines. The children, owners of the cards, lose the "library

habit" and at the most important period of their lives are shut away from the free reading of good books. Libraries experimenting with this question have found it wisest not to remit fines altogether, but to withhold the child's card for a certain length of time, or to allow him to pay his fines instead. The length of time the card is held should not be too long, lest it discourage the child. Whatever rule is followed it should be the same for all children. A good working rule is to hold the card one day for each day the book is overdue.

A child's card should be restricted to his own use, otherwise his mother and other adult members of his family, if too busy or careless to apply for cards, will use the child's card. This is also done when the adults' cards are held for fines, or if the adults wish extra books of fiction. The result is that many a child, week in and week out, is unable to use his card. In case a smaller fine is charged on a child's card than would be charged on an adult's, it is very necessary to restrict a child's card to his own use.

It is a pleasing theory that no child should read more than two or three books a week, but this does not hold good in practice. A child who *will read* can always find some reading-matter. If he is shut off from a supply of wholesome books, he will read trash—or worse—begged or borrowed, or bought for a few cents. There are usually plenty of bad books to be found; therefore the library does untold injury if, with the best intentions, it limits a child's free reading of good things. If parents or teachers complain of the over-reading of individual children, such cases may be treated as special ones. If the book collection is large enough, a child should be allowed two volumes at one time; he can then draw for personal reading and for school work. It is best to make no distinction between non-fiction and fiction, allowing two books of either class to circulate at the same time. In a carefully selected library many of the best books are fiction, and some of the poorest are non-fiction. From

an educational point of view good fiction stimulates a child's imagination, develops his ethical sense, introduces him to characters of history and romance, and to manners and customs of many peoples, and teaches him to live *through books*—to observe life, to enter into many human experiences, to meet emergencies with fortitude and courage, and to conquer obstacles honorably. In fact it widens his mental horizon, and helps to prepare him for life. Rules that close the fiction shelves shut him away from a mental diet which is necessary for his proper development.

When loan rules are reasonably unrestricted then the library's service to the children—that is, to the educational life of the community—is greatly strengthened and increased.

Methods of drawing children's attention to good books.—The great weakness, today, in library work with children, lies in the inefficiency of many of the methods used in children's reading-rooms. These are sentimental, or pyrotechnical, and have little or no direct bearing on books and reading. Such methods swell statistics of attendance by attracting and amusing crowds of children; but they give no real impetus to wider or better reading. They turn the children's library into the semblance of a theater, a museum, a kindergarten, or a playground. The children's library surely should not usurp the functions of such institutions. The children's library should, without question, confine itself to the exercise of its literary function. All methods used should lead to wider interest in books; they should increase good reading. Each method should be carefully tested, and, if it proves of no library value, discarded. Whatever method is utilized it should be carried out after careful preparation, and the goal—"the opening of the book"—kept steadily in view. Even the best of methods, if superficially undertaken or sentimentally exploited, wastes library funds. Though it may attract crowds of children to the library, it is as a rule unproductive so far as solid library results are concerned.

It is not possible here to treat fully of methods; these constitute a considerable part of the pedagogy of library work with children, which is a large subject. The following list of possible methods is added as merely suggestive, for when carried out by capable, sincere assistants, they have proved to be productive of desired results.

To Reach Individual Children:

Personal work with child.

Catalogs (card, pamphlet, or book).

Lists on special topics.

Literary ladders and other special devices.

Scrapbooks (containing pictures and lists referring to books).

Stereoscopic views (illustrating history, biography, travel, etc. Lenses should be disinfected after using).

To Reach Groups of Children:

Teaching use of catalogs, reference books, etc.

Story-hours.

Reading aloud.

Poetry hours.

Study clubs.

Illustrated book lectures.

Illustrated book bulletins.

To Bring About Co-operation of Parents:

Study of local home conditions (especially if the community is composed of foreigners).

Conferences with parents (including home visits when desirable, and the setting aside of certain periods for visits of parents to the library).

Affiliation with parents' and teachers' associations (including the National Congress of Mothers).

To Increase Institutional Co-operation:

Visits to schools and other institutions.

Story-telling and reading aloud in classrooms.

Attending teachers' meetings and speaking to the teachers.

Affiliation with educational, civic, and social-service bodies.

Encouraging teachers to visit the library.

To Arouse General Intelligent Co-operation among Adults:

Lectures on the educational value of library work with children (illustrated by stereopticon).

Exhibits of library work with children.

Exhibits of books suitable for parents to give their children (Christmas exhibits, etc.).

Club programs for the study of children's literature.

Printed lists of books useful to workers with children.

Attractive illustrated campaign literature, describing the work of the library's children's department.

Co-operation with the home.—Too much stress cannot be laid upon co-operation with this most important of human institutions. Ways of bringing about a closer touch between the library and educated parents are briefly outlined above. The work with tenement homes is a separate problem. Much home visiting for purely friendly purposes (never to collect fines) is most desirable. The taking of registrations may be made an excuse for the children's librarian to visit homes in her neighborhood. She may at the same time register the mothers who are not able to go to the library. Such home visiting not only makes the parents friendly to the institution, but enables the children's librarian to do more intelligent work with the boys and girls.

Tenement children who cannot be reached through regular library book-distributing agencies may be supplied with reading through the "home library"—a small traveling library, in a case with locked door. A group is formed of the neighborhood children. They meet weekly in a specified home and are under the direction of a club-leader from the library, usually a volunteer. The club-leader, or "friendly visitor," has ample opportunity to advise with neighborhood mothers, and to put them in touch with institutions that may better their conditions, such as hospitals, free dispensaries, free milk-stations, missions, and settlement houses. The weekly "library hour" spent with a

group allows of story-telling, reading aloud, and the discussion of books. As the "friendly visitor" is a volunteer, she may introduce many methods not suitable for use in the library building.

Home libraries are especially recommended for large industrial centers. They are rarely needed in a small town that has good library service.

Co-operation with the public schools.—One of the most important functions of the children's department is to meet the needs of the public school. This should be done both in the library building and in the classroom.

The provisions within the library may consist of a room set apart for teachers. It may be stocked with pedagogical books and magazines, and samples of children's books useful in the grades. To these may be added maps, a collection of textbooks, and one of mounted pictures cut from discarded magazines and books. The teachers should be encouraged to send the children to the library for reference work, and to notify the children's librarian beforehand of the topics to be studied. Everything possible should be done to help the children in their studies, but the fact should never be lost sight of that the children's room is primarily a place for pleasure reading, and that attendance at the library is voluntary. If the room becomes merely a workshop for the schools, it will lose its fascination for the children; they will do their lessons, choose their books, and go. For this reason it is wise to set aside a small reference room, or a corner of the children's room, for school study.

The best service to the schools may be rendered by sending to the buildings collections of books to be freely used by teachers and to be drawn for home use by the children.

The arrangements for loaning the books must depend on local conditions. The books may be sent to the principal and loaned from his office, or placed in the classroom in charge of a teacher. A collection of books may consist of many duplicates

of a few titles, or of miscellaneous titles—usually literary or general in character—rarely textbook in treatment.

The library should relieve the teacher of all possible clerical work. With each deposit of books should go a simple charging outfit, and an informal report of circulation may be rendered monthly by the teacher. The schools' division of the Buffalo public library has worked out a simple and satisfactory classroom loan system.

The library should at its own expense transport the books to and from the school. The principal should be allowed to make his own loan rules, and to register the children as he sees fit. Many school boards and most teachers hesitate to use library books if they are held responsible for lost volumes. In fact, insistence by the library that lost books be paid for usually cuts off opportunity to work with local schools. On the other hand, if the library assumes the technical responsibility for lost books, many teachers may be brought to feel a moral responsibility and a pride in a clean record; this will make them watch the children carefully and collect money from delinquents. When such action is spontaneous with the teachers, then better feeling and more cordial relations exist between library and schools.

To increase intelligent use of books by teachers, instruction in the use of indexes, catalogs, reference books, and courses in the growth of literature for children should be given by the children's librarian to normal-school classes, and also to the upper-grade pupils of the ward schools. As far as possible graded catalogs, book-lists, and other library aids should be supplied free to the teachers.

It is necessary for successful co-operation that the library should consider the great amount of labor exacted of the teacher in her daily work, and that it should adapt its rules to school conditions, and not seek to force on teachers iron-clad library rules useful in the library building, but restrictive and burdensome when applied in the classroom. Prompt service should be

given to schools and immediate response to teachers' requests, and friendly relations should be promoted by frequent classroom visits of the children's librarian in charge of the work with schools.

Co-operation with sectarian institutions.—The public library, like the public school, is a non-sectarian institution, supported by taxation. After having met the demands of the public school, it owes the same efficient service to the sectarian institution that it does to any private institution or individual. All should be treated alike, but no sectarian juvenile books should be supplied. These should be provided by Sunday schools. Rules for general service may be the same as those for the public school.

Co-operation with other institutions.—Playgrounds, field-houses, settlements, bath-houses, and other institutions may supply the library with quarters for children's reading-rooms or deposit stations. Heat, light, and janitor service are often given free. Social workers are frequently willing to conduct library reading-clubs along with their other work. The loan of books to organizations, or to club-leaders, may be on the same terms as to schools.

Among the many institutions that may become centers for the distribution of juvenile books are orphanages, missions, boys' and girls' clubs, boy scout organizations, telegraph stations (for messenger boys), United States post-offices (for special messengers), department stores (for cash girls and messenger boys), juvenile court detention rooms—in fact any organization that gathers together boys and girls. Through these special channels thousands of children may be reached who would not otherwise come under the influence of library books; and it is thus made possible for the library to operate at small expense a large system of juvenile book-distributing stations and reading-clubs. The institutions that are so generously giving their support to the library gain immeasurably from the increased intelligence of the children with whom they deal.

The children's librarian.—It is evident from the character and breadth of the work, as outlined above, that the assistants who are to carry out such a system must have high qualifications of general education and disposition, as well as special training. Without these qualities much of the attempted work must miscarry. The children's librarian should have culture that is inbred in the home, as well as more formal education. She should have magnetism for children, without which she can have no approach to them. She should be cheerful, childlike, yet mature of judgment; she should be possessed of a sense of humor, and of justice, and have a knowledge of children's interests and of juvenile books; moreover she should be widely read in the best literature. She should base her work, not on sentimentalism, but on sound educational principle and on knowledge of the social conditions of the people whom she serves. Though an educator, she is a specialized one—a librarian. Therefore, to be thoroughly competent, she should have the sanest of special training founded on general library training. Not all the enthusiasm or good-will of an assistant can make up for lack of culture or of sound theory. Enthusiasm is necessary, but unballasted by common sense and knowledge it does immeasurable harm.

On the children's librarian lies a great responsibility. She attracts children, draws them out, helps to form their ideals, and leads them into the higher paths of reading. If she is a woman of low ideals, and has in herself no motive force or qualities, save those based on emotions and sentiments, her weaknesses must react upon the children; but if she has those deep, sincere, fine qualities that influence her own daily acts, she will then uplift the children's ideals, and hold the respect of the boys and girls; and she cannot fail to be a strong and lasting influence for good. She not only trains readers but citizens; she helps to develop character, imagination, powers of reasoning, and other qualities in a child. She is the power behind the book.

Books have great influence, but in the hands of a fine children's librarian they double or treble that influence.

. **Hints to small libraries.**—Even in a small library it is possible to have a children's department. It may consist of a corner of the general reading-room, and be under the direction of the librarian. Under such circumstances telling work may be done with the children. They may be encouraged to read, and to look up school topics. Mothers' clubs and teachers' associations may be interested in building up a larger department. As the work progresses and funds increase it would be well to place the department in the hands of a trained children's librarian who can give her entire time to the work, or, if necessary, she may act as "part-time" assistant librarian. There are so few specialists in the field, that the head librarian who foresees the larger development of her children's department will do well to select a townswoman with the desirable qualifications, and urge her to take special training with the local work in view.

As to methods, the librarian should select one or two of the most effective, and put her time and energy on them. Better one method well carried out than several superficially done. If she wishes picture bulletins, let her get a local artist to make them under her direction, and thus save her time for things more substantial. It is possible for the librarian of the small library to do much fine, intensive work, which it is difficult to do in the crowded children's rooms of large institutions. She has greater opportunity to reach children individually than has the children's librarian of the city library.

Some important phases.—Every work has its weaknesses. It is only by frank and honest acknowledgment of these that the feeble spots may be strengthened. Library work with children is a new movement awakened by modern progress, and called for by modern theories of education. It is grafted on an old, conservative institution, a survival of the days when children were considered necessary evils to be suppressed until

mature. It is only within a few years that the library has allied itself with the many forces in this "century of the child," which are seeking to better the race by fostering the potentialities in boys and girls. This adjustment of old phases of library work to new is a delicate and difficult task. The old régime looks with disfavor on the new—which has come to stay. There is a dividing line between adult and juvenile work which prevents perfect co-ordination of the two. To adjust this is the province of the head librarian. It is for him to formulate the policies that preserve the balance of power between the adult and children's departments, thus permitting his specialists to direct their respective departments, unhampered by undefined fields of work and vague executive policies. On this adjustment depends the *esprit de corps* of the library staff, and also the library's power to do forceful, constructive work.

The general library schools may help to solve this important problem by giving more instruction in scientific business management and public-school organization, as applied to library administration, and by presenting courses which trace the progression of library literary education of the individual from childhood through youth to mature age. Future head librarians who have taken this course will be enabled to organize their libraries according to the most approved modern methods, and thus insure the greatest efficiency of service and the unhampered educational activities of their institutions. General assistants who have had this training will be prepared to make use of the literary foundations laid in the children's room.

Another serious evil, affecting the work with children, is the pressure sometimes brought to bear by library trustees and head librarians for annually increasing statistics of circulation and attendance. These are lying statistics at their best, and the endeavor to make them grow by leaps and bounds, out of proportion to natural growth, brings many evils in its

train. Such pressure encourages the purchase of sensational and popular fiction, and the use of spectacular methods which bring crowds of children to the library, and so swell the attendance record.

Long hours of service, short vacations, poor pay, and the imposition of duties beyond the thorough performance of a limited number of assistants, all deteriorate work with children.

The newness of the work is the cause of another grave weakness. There is a large and complicated problem to be met. It can be adequately handled only by assistants selected for special qualifications, and trained under practical and sane methods of library work with children. But the supply of such assistants is limited, and the result is that many untrained, inexperienced, and over-enthusiastic young girls are placed in positions of responsibility, where they carry on ignorant or sentimental work. This repels the reasoning head librarian and the tax-paying public, and brings much discredit on the library's work with children.

But in spite of these drawbacks, the general trend of the movement is earnest and encouraging. What but a few years since was merely a missionary effort on the part of individual librarians is today recognized by the educational world as a vital factor in a child's mental development. Today it is at the demand of the public that children's departments are established, and from the same public comes the call for careful juvenile-book selection and for the best library service to children. More funds are being voted for the work, larger building provisions are being made, and the movement is rapidly spreading throughout this country and abroad. Not only children of the cities and towns are being reached, but, through the library commissions and county libraries, many boys and girls on lonely farms and isolated ranches are having brought to them the best of the world's thought in books.

HOW TO PLAN AND EQUIP A CHILDREN'S READING-ROOM

Location of room.—The room should never be in a damp or gloomy basement. If possible it should be on the first floor, and near the entrance. As children use the reading-room largely during the afternoon, the room should be where it can get the afternoon sun. For the sake of order, approach to the room should not be through long, unguarded corridors, or by stairs leading from the adult reading-room, or by elevator. The children's room should never be over the reference room, as the noise of many feet disturbs students. If possible, the room should be where it may be observed by parents using the library.

Size of room.—To ascertain the proper size for the children's room, take a census of the local schools; decide on the amount and character of work to be done in the room, i.e., reading in room, personal work with the children, reference work, charging and discharging, etc. Apportion the space for the room according to needs. If available space is too small for all demands, do not place the loan desk in the children's room, but plan to have juvenile books charged and discharged at the main desk. This arrangement also saves assistance. If possible, plan for a small reference room or corner, adjoining the children's room, but shut off by a glass partition, so that it may be under observation of the children's librarian. If the children's room is a part of the general adult reading-room, and is under the direction of a special assistant, it is well to have the room closed in by partitions containing glass panels coming within three feet of the floor. Shelves for the little children may be built under the glass. Such a partition keeps the restlessness of children from disturbing adult readers, and relieves the nerve strain of the children's librarian.

Ventilation.—This should be such as to secure a continuous passage of fresh air through the room, without creating draughts.

Temperature should be kept as even as possible, and humid, and should not exceed 70 degrees Fahrenheit.

Lighting.—After careful examination of many children, experts state that much of the near-sightedness and general weakness of the eye comes from badly lighted schoolrooms. Such a statement applies equally to badly lighted children's reading-rooms where boys and girls do close and concentrated reading. Valuable suggestions for window lighting are given by the English architect, Felix Clay. These rules may be adapted to children's libraries (see Dutton and Snedden, "Administration of public education," p. 181). Artificial lighting should be indirect, and diffused, falling not only on the tables but on the fronts of the bookcases, so that titles may be read clearly. If there are table lights, the light-standards and shades should be so proportioned that light will fall on the children's books—*never on their eyes*.

Floor-covering.—This should be noiseless and washable. Corticine, varnished, makes a good-looking and serviceable covering. A good quality of rubber tiling makes an excellent covering, but is expensive.

Decoration of children's room.—This room should never be made a show place, ornamented with elaborate frescoes attractive to adult sight-seers. In the selection of all decoration quiet dignity should be observed and at the same time children's interests should be consulted, so that the room will attract, not be cold and repellent. The coloring of the woodwork and the walls should harmonize. Neutral colors are best backgrounds for pictures; soft shades of brown are artistic and satisfy the eye. If paper is used on the walls it should be plain, not figured. In selecting pictures one should remember that children like those full of action, telling a story, and reproduced in warm color. They like pictures of animals and children. In choosing pictures, artistic merit should be considered as well as children's interests.

Flowering plants, wild flowers, and potted ferns add a charm and a homelike appearance to the room, but they should be arranged in simple, unobtrusive jars or vases. The ordinary terra-cotta-colored earthen garden pot, if kept clean and placed in its saucer, is best for plants, and is pleasing in form and color. Gracefully shaped brass bowls may be used as jardinières. Clear glass finger bowls and fish bowls and other unornamented glassware make most attractive and inexpensive flower jars. Crude, colored, glazed pottery, dying plants, wilted flowers thrust carelessly into preserve jars and old crockery, are a disgrace to the library, as are also cheap, gaudy prints and garish calendars hung in the children's room. The children's librarian should seek to emphasize in every detail the refined, beautiful, and strong in decoration as well as in books. In the bibliography appended here are listed some interesting and useful books on decoration of schools. These apply also to the children's library.

Shelving.—This should not be too high for children to reach the topmost shelf. The proper height of shelving for older children is 5 feet; $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet is the height for young children. Shelves for the latter should be built near the tables for young children. If the room is small and shelf space needed, the shelving may be run up 7 feet, the top of the second shelf from the floor being built out 3 inches, thus forming a ledge under the third shelf. This ledge may be covered with corticine to protect the woodwork, and brass pulls may be fastened to the uprights between the shelves. The children can then stand on the ledge, and, raising themselves by the pulls, reach the upper shelves. This is, however, an awkward arrangement at best, and should be avoided if possible. Another arrangement is practical where storage space for books is desired. The shelves may be run up 7 feet. The two upper shelves of each tier, or alternate tier, may be closed in by corticine panels with sunken pulls, and swung on invisible hinges—hinged always

from the side, never from the bottom or top. One or two of these compartments, over the little children's shelves, may be made larger by inclosing three instead of two shelves, and may be fitted to hold picture bulletins, mounted maps, etc. The corticine panels may be used for book lists, picture bulletins, or framed pictures. Unless storage space is absolutely needed it is better not to run the corticine panels all round the room, as such an arrangement is inartistic and the panels give the effect of school blackboards. An irregular arrangement, suited to the shape of the room, is more pleasing to the eye.

Shelves for children's books should be 9 inches deep, with the exception of those for books for very little children, which should be 12 inches deep in order to hold the large bound picture books. The three upper shelves of one tier may be closed in by a glass door, with lock. Here may be kept the best picture books, fine editions, and pocket editions that are likely to disappear from open shelves. The shelves in this cupboard should be at least 12 inches deep to allow for the play of large books.

Aisles, tables, and chairs.—As much space as possible should be allowed between tables and shelves; this should be not less than 5 feet. This passage is necessary for free use of open shelves. The aisles between the tables should not be too broad, otherwise the children, looking for books, will pass between the tables, instead of through the passage before the bookcases. Passing between the tables tempts a boy to poke the readers, pull away their chairs, and do other things which create disorder. Aisles between tables, measuring from edge to edge, should be 4 feet. This allows for play of chairs, the measurements of which are given below.

The number of tables and size of table tops must depend on shape and size of room. Round tables are best for discipline, as only one child at the table can sit with his back to the assistant. To keep good order an assistant should be able to catch a mischievous child's eye. Legs of tables should be well

set back so as not to interfere with the children's knees; an overhang of 9 inches is a good thing. If legs are well set back, more chairs can be placed at a table. There should be nothing "kickable" under the table. Electric wires should run up through the table legs. All corners of tables and desks should be rounded, so that little children may not strike their eyes or heads on sharp projections. There should be two sizes of tables: one size for little children, placed near the assistant's desk and near the entrance door, and another size for the older boys and girls.

Chair seats should be shallow and comparatively broad. Backs of chairs should be straight and though not too high, they should support the child's spine. Chairs for the little tables should be made proportionately small, or else the older boys and girls will use them in preference to their own. If chairs look infantile the older children have too much pride to use them, and naturally take their places at their own tables, but if the chairs at the little tables have the same sized seats as those at the higher ones, the older children prefer the little tables; they crowd out the younger children and sit at the low tables reading in most unhealthy attitudes.

Recommended Heights for Tables and Chairs:

Tables for little children, 22 inches from floor to top.

Chairs for little children, 14 inches from floor to top edge of seat. This height includes rubber tips. Seat should be $11\frac{1}{4}$ inches deep, $12\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad; back, 12 inches high from seat to top edge.

Tables for older children, 26 inches from floor to top.

These tables are comfortable for adults of average size.

Chairs for older children, 16 inches from floor to top edge of seat. This height includes rubber tips. Seat should be $13\frac{1}{2}$ inches deep, $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad; back, $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches high from seat to top edge. For comfort, slats in chair back should be vertical, not horizontal.

... **Lean desk and assistant's desk.**—The desk should be low, about 28 or 30 inches in height. The top should be narrow so as

to bring the children near to the assistant. This is necessary if the children's librarian is to exert full moral control over each child. In case of a large loan desk, it should be built with an exit through which the assistant can pass directly to the children at a moment's notice. This is necessary for the maintenance of discipline. Other details of the desk should be planned to meet the requirements of the loan system used by the library. If there is only one desk in the room, it should be near the entrance door.

Washbowl and drinking facilities.—For hygienic reasons every children's room should be provided with washstand and towels. The stand may be inclosed in a cupboard, sunk in the wall, and flush with the front of the bookcases. It should be supplied with towel rack and soap dish, and a mirror should be hung over it, the lower edge touching the washbowl. The stand should be 23 inches from floor to top edge of bowl. Common towels should not be used, as they are germ-carriers. Tissue-paper towels come in large rolls that may be attached to the towel rack. These save laundry and are sanitary; and it makes no difference if a few are stolen. A waste basket should be placed under the washstand, into which the children can throw the towels after using. Plenty of wholesome drinking-water is essential to a child's health and growth. The library should supply this as does the school. Common drinking-cups spread disease. The bubbling fountain is sanitary and practical (see Dutton and Snedden, "Administration of public education," p. 206).

Bulletins and other accessories.—Every children's room should be provided with one or more bulletin boards, made of corticine mounted on wooden backs. The color of the corticine should harmonize with woodwork and wall coloring. Bulletin boards may be made movable, on legs like blackboards, or framed and fastened to the wall. Each bulletin board should be built with a shelf with end supports for books. Here may

be placed the books to which attention is called by the poster or list pinned on the corticine above. Drawers of suitable size may be provided for mounted pictures, also a card-catalog case low enough for the children to consult. Low, movable periodical racks, about the height of the larger tables, may be provided, or racks may be built into the wall casings. Similar racks may be provided for bound and unbound picture books; such an arrangement is better than shelving, as it displays the book covers and saves the wear and tear that come from much handling at the shelves. Atlas cases may be provided in the children's reference room, also a dictionary on a stand near the assistant's desk.

Story-hour and clubrooms.—A separate room, no matter how small, should be provided for story-hours and reading-clubs. This may be in the basement. The most hygienic and practical arrangement for seating children is to place four benches in a hollow square, one bench being shorter than the others, thus leaving a space for entrance into the square. The story-teller, or reader, may sit within the square on a bench near the entrance while the children, also sitting on the benches, are kept in order, and cannot press against each other, nor against the story-teller. Such crowding is likely to communicate diseases. The benches should be 14 inches from floor to top edge. Seats should be 12 inches wide. There should be no backs nor side ends. The length of benches depends on size of the room in which they are to be used. In a large audience hall several sets of benches may be used at once by story-tellers in different parts of the hall. When not needed benches may be piled against the wall. The room may be furnished with a small table and folding chairs for reading-clubs of older boys and girls. A small bulletin board is a useful accessory to a clubroom.

General suggestions.—Cleaning will be facilitated and woodwork preserved from moisture if 4-inch marble bases are used under all wall cases, window-seats, etc. Bases should be

included in measurements given above. For the same reason tables and chairs should have 4-inch high brass cups on legs.

Radiators may be concealed behind shelves, window-seats, or magazine racks. In case this is not feasible, radiators may be built behind metal gratings, flush with the front of the book-cases.

Window-seats and settles should be 14 or 16 inches from floor to top of seat, and 16 inches broad. There should be nothing "kickable" under seats. Marble window-sills, on which to place potted plants, should be made so wide that the window-panes will not interfere with the plants. The marble will protect the woodwork.

For artistic effect all wooden mouldings, brass fittings, and fixtures should be plain, graceful in line, and dull in finish. Generally speaking, everything in the room should so harmonize that no one part stands out distinctly from the rest, in either color, shape, or height. All should fitly subordinate itself to those greatest ornaments of the children's reading-room—the children and the books.

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XXX

LIBRARY WORK WITH THE BLIND

MARY C. CHAMBERLAIN

New York State Library

OUTLINE

Historical introduction

Books, periodicals, music

The librarian

Readers

The work

 Instruction by libraries

 Classification, cataloging, shelving, etc.

 Loan methods and records

Co-operation with other agencies

Bibliography

Historical.—Library work for the blind is one of the youngest branches of the extensive public and state library systems of America; in fact, it has not yet reached its majority in most of the states. Now, when the whole world is taking so keen an interest in the welfare and education of the blind, it is hard to realize that twenty-five years ago practically no formal provision had been made for their reading outside of the small collection of books in the schools or "asylums for the blind" as they were often called. There is record of two or three efforts being made thirty or forty years ago to establish some such libraries. One is noted in the report of the Boston Public Library for 1868, in which a donation of eight volumes from Mr. George Ticknor was acknowledged with the statement that it was hoped these volumes would prove the nucleus of a department of embossed books for the blind. The collection had grown to ten volumes in 1869, which had been drawn out eighteen times during the year by four persons. In 1882

Mr. John P. Rhoades of Philadelphia, treasurer of the Pennsylvania Bible Society, formed a Home Teaching Society for the Blind and from the Bible House superintended the library from which the Moon type books were lent to blind readers. In 1898 this library was reorganized and in 1901 incorporated with the Free Library of Philadelphia under the name of the Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society and Free Circulating Library for the Blind, which now has the second largest collection of embossed type books in this country. The Home Teaching Society for the Blind of Chicago was established in 1882 by Dr. and Miss Moon, and in 1894 the books were handed over to the Chicago Public Library. In July 1885, the Circulating Library for the Blind of the State of New York was incorporated through the efforts of several young women of New York City and its vicinity who had recently been graduated from the New York Blind Asylum. Their plan was "to loan books at a nominal cost" and their hope was that through the generosity of the public they would be able gradually to enlarge their library, to which Mr. Anagnos, superintendent of Perkins Institution, South Boston, Massachusetts, had promised to give twelve books and also to supply others published by him at cost price. This little library and the New York Free Circulating Library for the Blind, which was founded in 1895 by a blind man, Richard Randall Ferry of New York City, and which was organized by him from a collection of embossed type books which had been given a home in the Church of the Messiah in Brooklyn, were the forerunners and the nuclei of the largest collection of embossed type books in this country—that of the Library for the Blind of New York Public Library which was opened in February 1903. Dr. Bernard C. Steiner of the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore reported in 1894 that his library had bought sixty or seventy books for the blind and that "they proved useful." This collection now numbers between 1,700 and 2,000 volumes.

The New York State Library for the Blind was founded in March 1896. It was the first of the five state libraries which now have departments for the blind and has the third largest collection of books for the blind in the country. In 1896 the Detroit Public Library placed 110 volumes on its shelves. The reading-room for the blind in the Library of Congress was opened in 1897. The librarian's report for that year states that "in a library of a national character and reopening under improved conditions it was deemed wise to make some provision for the blind." The library was therefore started with a good collection of books and music which had come to it mainly through the operation of the copyright laws. These were the pioneers in the library work for the blind. There are now between 60 and 70 libraries owning and circulating embossed type books. The names of these libraries are given in the report of the Committee on Work for the Blind of the American Library Association to the Berkeley meeting in 1915.

Books, periodicals, music.—Books in embossed type are relatively few and very costly, and the diversity of types makes the matter worse by requiring duplication of popular titles. Blind readers do not realize that every title that is in ink is not theirs to command. While the saying "Of the making of many books there is no end" most truly applies to the book world of the sighted reader of today, in the literature for the blind the "making" is very small and "the end" soon reached. The reason for this seems to be that comparatively few institutions or libraries are willing to take up the expensive work of publishing these embossed type books. If some of the largest libraries would print each year even three or four new titles they would give an added joy to those who are trying bravely to defy "the infliction of a blow as hard as any to which mortals can be asked to submit," as a prominent blind Englishman defines blindness. Appropriations for buying embossed type books are comparatively small when their high cost is

considered. For instance, five volumes costing \$32.50 were required to print in embossed type only the first part—"The national government"—of Bryce's *American commonwealth* (the whole of which in ink print forms but two volumes, price \$4.00). The embossed printing and binding of Mrs. Deland's *The iron woman* (a \$1.35 ink print book) costs \$27.20; and of Dr. Crothers' *Among friends* (a \$1.25 ink print book), \$10.30. These are the prices of New York point editions. It would cost virtually as much to make these same titles available to the reader of American Braille only, or to the reader of English Braille or of the Moon type. Will it not seem in library work for the blind as if the millennium had come when a uniform type has been decided upon and when all embossed books are open to all readers?

Besides books there are many hundreds of pieces of music, both vocal and instrumental, to be had, and numerous embossed type periodicals exist. A partial list of them is printed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter. Those most popular in this country are the *Matilda Ziegler Monthly Magazine*, which is printed in both New York point and American Braille and is a gift to the blind of the United States and of Canada. Stories, poems, bits of travel and of humor, current events, and often maps and diagrams of special interest are included. A recent number published a complete diagram, with description, of a submarine. The *Milwaukee Weekly Review* is virtually the American newspaper for the blind, and the keenest interest is shown in this little publication. The *Searchlight*, published by the New York Association for the Blind, is particularly intended for children, and *Lux Vera* and the *Catholic Transcript* find many readers glad that these periodicals of their church are available.

An eminent librarian has said, "A collection of books for the blind should be subject to no more limitations than any other collection." But, alas, embossed books are printed, not in one type alone, but in five different types, and most readers do

not read more than two different systems. Many read only one type, consequently the same title to be available to all readers must be printed in two or three different types. The books of today are printed in American and English Braille, Moon type, and New York point, and from the report of the Uniform Type Committee word is received of a new system—the “Standard dot system.” Books are no longer printed in Line letter, the first of all the systems, the most difficult to read, and the only system which cannot be written.

In selecting books for libraries, although it is well to have the collection include some books printed in each of the embossed types, the largest part of the library must of necessity be in the type taught at the schools for the blind of the state, because the majority of the readers have attended or are pupils of these schools, or are those who have been advised and instructed by some of these pupils to take up the system that has been most popular with them. Some “home teachers” and “field agents” think that all who first take up “finger reading” should begin with the Moon type which is considered the easiest system to learn, and is particularly desirable for those who become blind in adult life.

Librarian.—It is necessary for a librarian for the blind to become familiar with the different embossed type systems, in order that the title-pages and often some of the context may be written out before the accessioning, classification, and cataloging are done. Many letters and lists of books, too, are often received written in point type. In one or two instances a blind person has been employed as the librarian in a library for the blind, but the words of a prominent librarian on that subject seem clear and to the point: “Some authorities lay stress on the necessity or at least the value of employing in a library for the blind a librarian who is herself blind. This reminds one of Dr. Johnson’s nonsense line. ‘Who drives fat oxen must himself be fat.’ The person in charge of a collection of books

for the blind needs the full use of her senses, and although she should be able to read all the different systems of typography she will be all the more valuable for ability to use her eyes also."

Readers.—Having the books, a good place to keep them, and a librarian, the next necessity is readers. Blind persons cannot come to the library as easily as others; ordinary means of publicity fail to reach them effectively, which is not surprising when it is recalled that even vigorous and persistent library publicity directed toward those who can see, leaves many unaffected. Blind readers must be sought—by personal inquiry and visitation, by close co-operation with schools for their education, through civic officers, through state commissions charged with promoting their welfare and industrial status, and through local associations organized for social purposes. Some states or communities take a civic census of the blind, but even with such data constant vigilance and industry are required to keep records alive and complete. Every library serving blind readers should keep a card catalog of all blind persons known to it, with full information regarding each as to age, address, education, kind of types read, prospect of enrolment as a reader, etc.

Necessarily library work for the blind is most widely carried on by correspondence, as only the most independent of the blind have confidence enough to come to the libraries without guides. When there is such a one there is a real joy in watching him going in and out among the stacks reading with eager trembling fingers the titles in embossed type, often exclaiming with delight over some "old friend" or a very recent biography that he has so wanted to read. Although comparatively few readers come to stay to enjoy the books while in the library, many come in to visit and oftentimes for a word of cheer when they are first "learning how to be blind."

Instruction of readers.—When a new reader makes application to the library the first thing to do is to send an encouraging

letter with a catalog or finding-list and instructions for using the library when one of the embossed systems has been learned. Alphabet sheets and primers are sent on at once that the reader may make choice of the type preferred. When the primer is returned the reader is usually ready to borrow books and magazines. In the states where commissions for the blind have been appointed, their "home teachers" and "field workers" often take the first steps personally with the new reader, which were formerly taken necessarily in most cases by correspondence with the librarians for the blind.

The Work: *Classification, cataloging, etc.*—The technical work of a library for the blind is carried on in virtually the same manner as that of any library. The books are accessioned, classified, cataloged, and shelf-listed, but the classification by subjects is usually not carried out as far as that of the ink print books.

Embossed books may of course be classified conventionally by subjects, but this mingles books of different types and it is found that the collection is much more readily available to the librarian as well as to the occasional readers who use the shelves when classified primarily by types. The latter method almost always obtains in the arrangement of titles in the printed finding lists or catalogs which have been issued by several libraries. In a card catalog of embossed books each card should tell the type in which the book is printed. This may be done by a note or by the use of mnemonic call numbers, using, perhaps, initial letters to show the different types.

Shelving in the library for the blind must be very much higher and deeper than for ink print books. Embossed type books occupy, in cubic inches, six or eight times the space of ink print editions. The shelves in the New York State Library, which were built especially for such books, measure 14 inches in depth by 15 inches in height.

Loan methods and records.—Finding lists of the library and call slips (on which to make out a list of from ten to twelve titles of books and pieces of music preferred, with the type always noted) should be sent to each reader of the library. Some libraries furnish for a nominal sum finding-lists in embossed type for the readers. The charging system is carried on with the book and reader's card as in the lending of ink print books.

In sending out the books a return gummed mailing label, bearing the address of the sending library and the reader's (sender's) name and address on the upper left corner, is always inclosed with the periodical, book, or piece of music lent.

A great boon to the blind was the grant from the government in 1904 of free use of the mails for reading-matter for the blind when sent out by public institutions for the blind or by public libraries as a loan to blind readers or when returned by the latter to such institutions or public libraries.

The circulation of books in most libraries for the blind is confined to their own states, but at present the New York Public Library, the New York State Library, the Library of Congress, and the California State Library allow their embossed type books to go to readers in any state of the Union where the book desired is not to be had locally.

Co-operation with other agencies.—The co-operation of the state commission for the blind with the library brings much of helpfulness to both. The "home teachers" and "field agents" of the commission interest the blind of the state to learn one of the different embossed type systems, and in so doing to find that they are not cut off from the world and from what had interested and diverted them before blindness. Their names are sent to the library, letters written, and books and periodicals lent to them. So, too, with the schools, the libraries are often called upon to aid with textbooks, and during the summer months of vacation very many of the children turn at once to the library for some "good books to read."

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The Braille review. National Institute for the Blind, Great Portland St., London, W. 2s. .

Outlook for the blind. Columbus, Ohio. \$1.00.

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PUBLICATIONS FOR BLIND READERS

LIST OF PUBLISHERS

Publications for the blind are issued from the following sources:
American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Ky.
Clovernook Printing House, Mt. Healthy, Ohio.

Illinois School for the Blind, Jacksonville.
 Michigan School for the Blind, Lansing.
 Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis.
 Moon Society, National Institute for the Blind, London, W.
 National Institute for the Blind, London, W.
 New York State School for the Blind, Batavia.
 Pennsylvania Institute for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook.
 Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Watertown.
 Royal Blind Asylum and School, West Craigmillar, Edinburgh.
 Samuel Gridley Howe Club, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Society for Providing Evangelical Religious Literature for the Blind, New York City.
 Western Pennsylvania Institute for the Blind, Pittsburgh.
 Xavier Free Publication Society for the Blind, New York City.

SOME OF THE PERIODICALS FOR THE BLIND

New York Point

Canada's premier magazine for the blind (monthly). Arthur Gate, Dominion Tactile Press, 275 Delaware Ave., Toronto, Canada. Free circulation throughout the Dominion.
 Catholic transcript for the blind (monthly). Xavier Free Publication Society for the Blind, 801 W. 181st St., New York City. \$1.00.
 Christian record (monthly). Office of the Christian Record, College View, Neb.
 Lux vera (bi-monthly). J. Gockel, 834 36th St., Milwaukee, Wis. \$1.50.
 Matilda Ziegler magazine for the blind (monthly). Ziegler Publishing Company, 250 W. 54th St., New York City. 10c.
 Milwaukee weekly review. J. Gockel, 834 36th St., Milwaukee, Wis. \$2.50.
 Sunday School weekly. Rev. Albert Dale Gantz, Society for Providing Evangelical Religious Literature for the Blind, 150 Nassau St., New York City. \$1.50.

American Braille

Canada's premier magazine for the blind (monthly). Arthur Gate, Dominion Tactile Press, 275 Delaware Ave., Toronto, Canada. Free circulation throughout the Dominion.

- Catholic review (monthly). Xavier Braille Publishing Society, 824 Oak Ave., Chicago, Ill. \$1.00.
- Christian record (monthly). Office of the Christian Record, College View, Neb.
- Matilda Ziegler magazine for the blind (monthly). Ziegler Publishing Company, 259 W. 54th St., New York City. 10c.
- Michigan herald. Michigan School for the Blind, Lansing. 10 numbers a year. 25c.
- Search light (quarterly). New York Association for the Blind, 111 E. 59th St., New York City. Free. A magazine for children.

European Braille

- Der blinde musiker Monatsschrift für Musiker und Musikfreunde. Blinden-daheim (monthly). Director, E. Kull, Berlin.
- Braille literary journal (monthly). 16s.
- Braille musical magazine (bi-monthly). 206 Great Portland St., London, W. 8s.
- Church messenger (monthly). Miss Langton, 2 Perry Villas, Campden Hill, London, W. 10s.
- Comrades (monthly). 206 Great Portland St., London, W. 4s. A Braille magazine for boys and girls.
- Craigmillar harp: a musical magazine published quarterly and containing organ, piano, and vocal music. Royal Blind Asylum and School, West Craigmillar, Edinburgh. 3s.
- Daily mail. Associated Newspapers, Ltd., Carmelite House, London, E.C. 6s. 6d.
- Esperanto ligilo (monthly). A. J. Adams, Plynlmmon Terrace, Hastings, Eng.
- Gesellschafter: wissenschaftliche und literarische Monatsschrift.
- Der Grillenscheucher: humoristische Monatsschrift.
- Hampstead magazine (monthly). London Society for Teaching the Blind, 10 Upper Avenue Road, Hampstead, N.W.
- Hora jucunda (monthly). Royal Blind Asylum and School, West Craigmillar, Edinburgh. 12s.
- Johann Wilhelm Klein (monthly). Imperial Institution for the Blind, Vienna, Austria. 6s. 8d.
- Light in darkness (weekly). Miss Halkett, Pitfirrane, Dunfermline, Fife. 2d.
- Louis Braille (monthly). Association Valentin Haüy, 31 Avenue de Breteuil, Paris.

- Mission field (monthly). S.P.G. House, 15 Tufton St., London, S.W. 2s.
- Morning. Royal Institution for the Blind, Adelaide, S. Australia. 1s. a copy.
- Progress (monthly). British and Foreign Blind Association, 206 Great Portland St., London, W. 8s.
- Quarterly intercession paper. Miss D. Birch, 11 Dryburg Road, Putney, S.W., Eng. 3s.
- Repertorio del musicista cieco (monthly). \$3 00.
- Santa Lucia (monthly). The Misses Hodgkin, Zenda, Balcombe, Sussex. 1s. 6d.
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- Weekly summary. E. R. Scott and L. T. Bloxham, Eltham, Kent. 10s. 10d.
- Zeitgeist: wissenschaftliche und literarische Monatsschrift (monthly). Hamburg, Germany.

Moon

- Dawn (quarterly). Northern Counties Blind Society, 4 and 5 Howard St., North Shields, England.
- Moon magazine (monthly). National Institute for the Blind Great Portland St., London, W. \$5 00.

LISTS OF BOOKS IN EMBOSSED TYPE

- Brooklyn Public Library. List of books for the blind. 52 pp. 1911.
- California State Library. Books for the blind; circular and finding-list. Ed. 4. 133 pp. 1914.
- Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. Books for the blind. 44 pp. 1914. (Classified catalog 1907-11, Part 9.)
- Library of Congress. List of books in embossed type in the reading-room for the blind. 50 pp. 1914.
- New York Public Library. Catalogue of books for the blind. 41 pp. 1913.
- . Catalogue of music for the blind. 36 pp. 1915.
- New York State Library. List of books in the library for the blind. 116 p. Albany, 1915. (Bibliography bulletin 55.)
- Contains also "Suggestions for using the library" 5 pages, and on pp. 92-95 a priced list of the books in New York point which have been printed by the New York State Library.

